The Nation.

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The Week.

On September 3 the President of this nation was exposed to mortal peril in the kind of accident which every day cuts off from the living one or more American citizens. The profound sense of thankfulness and relief universally felt at his escape is in striking contrast with the public apathy amid which obscurer victims of automobile and electric car meet mutilation and death. We make no complaint of this state of things: the President's life is justly held more precious than that of the average citizen. But we do quarrel with the indifference which turns the common roads over to every kind of swift and ponderous vehicle, and with the cynicism which gives to those who are bound to exercise the greatest care a virtual license for recklessness. It is well to inquire how it is possible for an American citizen, simply because he is also a motorman, consciously to put the President's life at hazard, for the sake of saving a few seconds of time. No doubt it will turn out to be the case that Motorman Madden acted with democratic impartiality. He is said to have told the expostulating and bleeding President that he (Madden) "had the right of way." The phrase is instructive. There are many reasons to believe that "Devil take the hindmost" is in some danger of being accepted as the rule of the road among us. It is only when a President's life is in danger that we so much as question the new theory of "right of way." Our high roads have greatly changed since De Quincey saw in the mail-coach an awful symbol of sudden peril by the way. Swift and dangerous means of locomotion have outgrown the older laws, the habits of the courts, and have dazed public opinion. If the President's peril brings this condition home to us, and suggests a remedy, it will be a striking instance of good as the "latter end of ill."

Whether a President of the United States should "swing around the circle," as Mr. Roosevelt has been doing in New England and the South, is a question that has suggested itself to many people and newspapers. The Boston *Herald*, for instance, is not at all sure that such extended and hasty tours as the President is now making are consistent with the dignity of the great office he holds, and believes that "the President was never intended to be anything like a stump orator." Those who see in the accident at Pittsfield a warning of what may happen to a President who leads too strenuous a life, would also prefer to have the President journey less, and only under conditions which insure his safety as far as possible. We do not, however, agree with what seems to be the Boston *Herald's* contention, that the President should hold communication with the people only by his messages to Congress. In the nature of things, occasions must arise when, by means of a public address in some great centre, the President will be able to arouse the public as in no other way. The question of our relations with Cuba is one in point. Congress having deliberately declined to come to the rescue of that ill-treated island, and having wantonly disgraced the American name at the behest of the beet-sugar interests, the President is eminently justified in going to and among the people in order that justice may be done.

As to the manner of doing this, we are not of the opinion that it calls for journeys to small hamlets throughout a particular section of the country. If the President favors New England, there will be calls for him from the Pacific slope, the Middle West, or the South, which the party managers will insist upon his acceding to. This is manifestly impossible. So vast is the country that the President cannot afford to take the time to travel to any great extent even once in two years. More important than this is the fact that there is probably no man living who can make more than half-a-dozen addresses without the necessity of repeating himself again and again, just as the President has done in his speeches on the Trusts. There is a distinct limit, too, to the number of persons and things that can be praised. Mr. Roosevelt has, for instance, expressed his unbounded admiration for Secretaries Hay, Moody, and Root, ex-Secretary Long, Gov. Crane, Gen. Wood, Gov. Taft, Attorney-General Knox, J. G. Blaine, the army, the navy, the Department of Agriculture, the veterans of 1861-1865 and of 1898, the locomotive engineers and firemen, the workingman, the helpful capitalist, and the non-hurtful Trust—and we forget how many more. Gradually, we fear, Mr. Roosevelt will have exhausted the all too short list of good men and women, and be in still greater danger of rendering himself cheap in the public eye. And the President of the United States cannot afford to do that, however much he may sincerely desire to be democratic and go about among the people.

Democratic stupidity has seldom been more flagrantly illustrated than in the recent Vermont election. For fifty years that party has advocated the principles of high license and local option. This year the regular Republican candidate was opposed by a bolter who represented those principles, and there seemed to be a chance of his election if the Democrats would give him their support. By themselves the Democrats were utterly helpless, while if they would vote for the candidate who represented Democratic doctrine on this question, they might secure the triumph of their cause. But the little group of managers who run the organization would not consider this idea, and insisted upon putting up a candidate of their own. Considerably more than half of the Democratic voters refused to abide by the decree of the convention, and supported Mr. Clement, the Republican bolter; but the Bourbon managers held over 7,000, and thereby prevented Mr. Clement's securing a majority. The full vote of the State was 28,117 for Mr. Clement, and 7,280 for the Democratic nominee—or a total of 35,397 if all had been cast for the bolter; whereas the regular Republican candidate had only 31,788, and the Prohibition candidate 2,525, making 34,313 together—a clear majority of over 1,000 for Mr. Clement if all of the Democrats had supported him. As it is, the Legislature will elect, and there will be a majority of members for the regular Republican candidate.

In nominating Dr. George C. Pardee for Governor the Republicans of California appear to have risen far above the level usually attained in the political affairs of that State. Dr. Pardee is distinctly a reform candidate, his nomination having been brought about as one of the results of exposures involving the Gage Administration in connection with the illegal manufacture of furniture, etc., at the San Quentin Prison. He is a physician of excellent education, which he acquired with high honors, both in this country and in Germany. He first attracted public attention as a member of the Board of Health in Oakland, and later as a Councilman. Here he became known as the persistent foe of neglect or corruption in any of its forms. He found the Oakland Council controlled by a ring of freebooters, and without delay he began a contest against them. There were times when he stood opposed by all but one of the other members of the Board, but he did not give up the fight. Publicity was his weapon, and exposure after exposure brought about by him finally caused the ring to abandon some of the worst of their plans. He then led a reform movement against the machine in control of the city, and was elected Mayor by a large majority, with the result of correcting many abuses, reducing taxation, and beginning several permanent municipal reforms.

This excellent nomination has been

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matched by the Democrats. They have put up Franklin K. Lane, who has gained an excellent reputation in the city government of San Francisco, as Dr. Pardee has done in the small municipality across the bay. Mr. Lane is still a young man. After studying law he engaged in newspaper work for some years, first in New York city and then in the State of Washington, so that it was not until 1895 that he began practice in San Francisco. He immediately joined a group of young men who were bent upon overthrowing the corrupt Democratic machine, and he gained the public confidence so completely that he has been elected City Attorney three times, running at the head of his ticket. As an official he has shown independence and courage, enforcing the laws against strikers who had committed crimes, although he was warned that he would thereby lose the "labor vote." It is refreshing to see a man of this type winning merited recognition.

Quay and Penrose threatening the railroad presidents with the power of the Republican party in Pennsylvania if the coal strike continues, are a pair of ridiculous mice at the foot of a mountain in labor. The calmness of the aforesaid presidents in the face of such danger is easily accounted for. Quay and Penrose belong to them and to the capitalists affiliated with them. They can put both of them out of office as easily as they put them in—more easily, in fact, than they put Quay in the last time. Quay would never think of passing a law at Harrisburg without their consent. If anybody should attempt to pass such a law, Quay and Penrose would compass its defeat in some way. The Republican party in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, and in the State at large, is the subservient tool and instrument of a corrupt ring, of which Quay and Penrose are the figureheads, but not the motive power. The real parties in interest are the corporations that furnish the money by which the springs of government are polluted, and the State made a hissing and a by-word to mankind. No wonder the railroad presidents snap their fingers when their two Senators talk about the Republican party and the power of the State in connection with the coal strike. Senator Platt, when interviewed about the strike, has not hinted at the use of political power as a means of ending it, but has merely predicted the end within two weeks. He is therefore less of a humbug in this instance than his fellow-Senators from the adjoining State.

The question of "sending money West to move the crops" is discussed every autumn, and has been re-discussed this season, but with such a confusion of facts and causes that the bewilderment of the average reader is inevitable. The simple facts of the matter are, that, in the few weeks of harvest-time, employment of labor in the grain districts increases by several hundred thousand hands. These laborers are paid in cash—usually every week. To make the payments, the farmers draw the currency from their banks, and the banks must be prepared to meet such customers' demands. A dozen years ago, when the banks of the harvest States were relatively poor, they would borrow the requisite money from Eastern institutions. Now they have plenty of money of their own; but, since its use in the country districts, at other periods than harvest, is limited, the country banks are accustomed to lend their own money, during the remainder of the year, in the larger city markets. It will be observed, however, that in either case large sums of actual money, now in the bank vaults of the East, would be needed by the West, and could be obtained by it. With an abundant harvest —for, of course, the larger the crop, the larger the weekly labor bill—thirty to forty million dollars is drawn from New York alone in the course of a dozen weeks. This is exactly what is occurring now. Taken altogether, the cereal crops are perhaps as large as have ever been gathered in this country. Moreover, the sum of money now in the New York market, but owned by Western banks, is probably quite as great as in any previous year. Last week's shipment of $2,500,000 currency from New York to the West and South was the opening of a perfectly normal movement.

Such a movement, thus occasioned, is a plain enough sign of real prosperity. The only reason why any one talks of it with misgiving is that the Eastern banks are not sure they can comfortably spare the money. This, too, is easy to understand. Demand for credits, in connection with the financial enterprises of the time, has been so great that Eastern bank resources are fairly strained. Saturday's statement showed that, in thirty-two out of the fifty-nine banks of the New York Clearing-house, the ratio of cash reserves to deposit liabilities is below the 25 per cent. minimum of the national banking law. In Boston the combined excess of reserves over such a minimum, in the thirty-one Clearing-house institutions, was last week only $185,000. These huge deposit liabilities were built up, very largely, on the basis of cash sent East, for the reasons already noticed, by interior institutions. Now that the West has need of the money, it must be sent back; but the Eastern banks must do something to make good the loss. There are three expedients possible—to reduce liabilities by shifting loans to other local institutions, increase reserves by importing gold from Europe, or simply call in and cancel the loans which are outstanding. Although the first expedient is now being used, and although relief through the second is hoped for, the fear that the absolute loan contraction may be resorted to frightens the speculative markets. The outcome, as usual, will be interesting. We make no mention of the Treasury as a factor of relief, because the Government is just now taking more money from the banks than it pays to them, and because we are skeptical over the possibilities of the new bank-circulation plan.

Mr. Yerkes and Mr. J. P. Morgan are not precisely the advocates of any kind of tariff reduction to whom Congress will lend a willing ear, but the reminder from these gentlemen that the tariff on works of art keeps abroad treasures which should be at home in this country is timely and necessary. The only excuse for this tax is that the wealthy can stand it. That it has any "protective" value to American art, or that American art desires any such protection were it possible, has been many times denied by our art societies. The fact that American collectors keep their pictures abroad shows that, if they *can* stand the duty, they will not. One may praise the public spirit of the late Mr. H. G. Marquand, who paid tens of thousands of dollars on the pictures which he intended for the Metropolitan Museum, but one cannot blame the collector who declines to pay an additional great sum on what is in any case an unproductive purchase. That the entrance of noble works into a country which is just forming an art of its own is desirable, needs no argument. It should be made easy to bring them in, and the present schedule, which was slipped into the Dingley Bill almost inadvertently, after the Wilson Bill had shown the practicability of the free list for works of art, is a disgrace to those who would tax civilization itself.

The Children's Court is, we are glad to say, at last at work, after months of aggravating delay. New York can now see for itself the value of such an institution, and judge as to the correctness of the views of those who, like Mr. Jerome, have believed that the old order of things should be adhered to. Of course, the success of the court will depend to a large degree upon the wisdom of the judge—to a far greater degree, indeed, than in most courts. The mind of the child is a study in itself. The limit of corrigibility is so far beyond that of the age of manhood or womanhood that seldom can a youthful offender be dismissed with a jail sentence as hopelessly beyond reform. The extent of the influence exerted upon a child by some mature mind, and the responsibility of the child abandoned by its natural guardians, are samples of some of the difficult questions which must be settled by the court in almost every case. The

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boy who last week assured Justice Olmsted that he had no mother, because "if yer mother don't care for yer, ye ain't got a mother," is but a type—but a most pathetic and significant type. It would seem as if nothing but good could come out of this separation of immature wrong-doers from older and habitual criminal offenders, and from the close co-operation of the judge and our children's societies and institutions which is already assured.

One of the most significant happenings at the important dinner given to Governor Taft by the Manila Chamber of Commerce on Saturday week was the notice served upon him by the one hundred business men present that some other kind of labor besides that of the Filipinos is necessary for the development of the islands. The kind of workers these American merchants want is Chinese, since the climate discourages if it does not prevent Americans from attempting any kind of manual labor. Plainly, they do not share the opinion of Congress, as expressed at its last session, that the Chinese exclusion laws shall apply to our over-sea territory, but agree with Professor Jenks of Cornell in insisting that the whole future of the archipelago lies in the hands of coolie laborers. This is a cold-water douche, indeed, for our confident Expansionists, and particularly for the Pacific Coast brand. If it comes to a choice between the Philippines and the admission of Chinese into the United States by way of Manila, it is easy to prophesy how the Western Congressmen and Senators will vote. Of course, it will be urged that Chinese can be used in the Philippines, and yet be prevented from entering the United States. They would then constitute still another variety in our political mélange, to be used in enriching ourselves, while they are refused either citizenship or free circulation within our own domains. As it is, no one can believe that the Manila Chamber of Commerce has a high opinion of the wisdom of Congress, which not only made a complete failure in dealing with the Philippine money question, but also a fatal mistake about the labor needs of the archipelago. Yet have we not been assured a thousand times that the future of the islanders was absolutely secure in our hands, and certain to be determined by the all-seeing wisdom of our law-givers in Washington, ten thousand miles from the country for which they legislate?

The absence of intemperate comment on the sinking of a Haytian revolutionary gunboat by a German cruiser is significant. Not so long ago everybody would have been for humbling the pride of Germany and for immediate dispatch of a flying squadron to Hayti. Upon the basis of the present incomplete news, the rights of the matter appear to be as follows: The Firminist gunboat *Crête-à-Pierrot*, having been warned by our Commander McCrea, as representative of most of the civilized Powers, that no interference with commerce would be permitted, seized from the German merchantman *Markomannia* a cargo of arms. We believe that the Haytian "Admiral," since he had himself admitted the insufficiency of his blockade, and since the belligerent status of his faction had never been recognized by any great Power, undertook to confiscate contraband of war at his proper peril of being treated as a pirate. His case was not unlike that of the Peruvian revolutionary ironclad *Huascar*, which stopped British colliers on the high seas, and was worsted by a British cruiser in 1877. This action has always been regarded as justifiable, and except that arms are more definitely contraband than coal, it parallels at every point the present case. Still, the peremptoriness of Germany's action was no doubt proportioned to the feebleness of the Haytian navy, revolutionary or recognized, and to that scorn of the blacks which Napoleon manifested so brutally towards the same people.

Although the war with the Boers has ended, the discussion of its lessons goes on among military men without cessation. One of the most interesting contributions to the subject is from the pen of Lieut.-Col. F. N. Maude, long recognized as one of the ablest British writers on the art of war. He finds that there was a "stupendous advance" in English military preparedness between 1879 and 1900, and resents the imputation that this could have been accomplished by an army whose officers were conspicuously deficient in "professional keenness." Lieut.-Col. Maude's most original contention, which he bears out well with statistics of several wars, is that the modern breechloading rifle does not kill more readily than the old short-range muzzleloading weapon. Whereas charges made by Mamelukes, Turks, Ghazis, and Sikhs were easily stopped with the old weapon, such rushes, he finds, have frequently been successful in modern times, when the European troops had five times the distance and five times the rate of fire to meet their enemies with. His final conclusion is quite favorable to the attacking side, whereas most writers have seen in the Boer successes a substantial gain for the defensive. Lieut.-Col. Maude also believes that "the leaders' influence on the issue of a battle is greater, not less, than it ever was before." To those who have been hoping to see wars ended by the increased destructiveness of weapons, Lieut.-Col. Maude's conclusions about the modern rifle will bring distinct disappointment.

Criticisms of Russian finance by English and German publicists are commonly unfavorable, and are apt to end with the prediction of a great economic catastrophe. Such is the climax of a long review of the plans and doings of M. Witte in the columns of the Prussian *Jahrbuch*, which finds its way into the American press. But if the conditions now prevailing in Russia are as bad as those pictured by the *Jahrbuch*, a great economic catastrophe could not make them worse. When large sections of the country are reduced to starvation, a financial panic can hardly be expected, and if it comes, will not find much to destroy. In ten provinces, according to this authority, the death-rate is above 40 per 1,000, in consequence of insufficient food for the peasantry, while it is 34.8 per 1,000 for the whole country. This is very discouraging, certainly, yet it does not follow, as the *Jahrbuch's* article implies, that the Government ought to prohibit the exportation of cereals. It might buy the cereals, if it were able to do so, and distribute corn to the poor; but merely to prohibit the exportation would be to compel the owners to sell to their neighbors at lower prices than foreigners offer; that is, to put the burden of poor relief on the holders of grain exclusively or disproportionately. It is true that this method of poor relief is not unknown in Russia, but it is not to be commended as a mode of bettering the finances of a country. Nor is it sound doctrine to say that Russia ought not to have introduced the gold standard. The gold standard existed *de facto* in all commercial transactions of any magnitude long before it was adopted *de jure*, and the act of the Government merely put common practice into the form of law. The poor man was not harmed by the change.

No one more than the late Ernest Renan would enjoy the opposition to the project for setting up his statue at Tréguier. The great skeptic had studied in all its phases the phenomenon of the prophet without honor in his own country, and would have been delighted to see its signal illustration in his own case. The protest of the clergy of Tréguier is wholly logical. The village is profoundly Catholic, breathing a spirit of religion which Renan definitively renounced. The statue of the finished dilettante and smiling unbeliever which Renan became, would be strangely incongruous among the simple serious folk from whom he sprang. This lack of *rapport* between one of the greatest French scholars of our time and his natal village suggests the general query, "Are great men as a rule well fitted with birthplaces?" One must believe that they are; otherwise they would not have achieved greatness. The complementary form of the question, "Are birthplaces happily fitted with great men?" admits less readily of an answer.

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MORE LIGHT ON THE COAL STRIKE.

The report of Col. Carroll D. Wright on the labor troubles in the anthracite coal mines is the first official statement that has been made of the causes of the cessation of industry in that region. Simultaneously with its publication we have a long statement of the operators' point of view from Mr. Baer, President of the Reading Railroad, in reply to a suggestion from Senators Quay and Penrose that it is time for the Republican party, as the custodian of the State's interests, to do something to bring about a cessation of the strike. The Senators clearly imply that, unless some steps are taken by the operators to end the strike, the political power will seek to accomplish that result. Mr. Baer, in reply, makes a statement which, if made at any time since the beginning of the strike, would have been helpful in enlightening public opinion and in bringing the force of it to bear on all the parties concerned. Mr. Baer does not, however, give any sign of being alarmed by the prospect of political interference which the words of Quay and Penrose presage, although he recognizes their right and duty to do whatever can be "legitimately" done to end the strike.

Mr. Baer, speaking for the coal operators, says that the miners make demands which render it impossible to mine coal profitably; that the State has enacted laws prohibiting the employment of men in the mines unless they have worked two years in anthracite mines; and, therefore, the operators cannot, for the time being, mine coal. "How then," he continues, "can there be any violation of public duty? If we yield to the extravagant demands of the miners, we shall lose money. If we attempt to increase the price of coal, we shall destroy the industries depending upon anthracite fuel. If we increase the price on the domestic sizes, we shall be called robber barons, oppressors of the poor, monopolists, and enemies of mankind." For these reasons he and his colleagues have decided to stand firmly on four propositions: (1) that the wages paid for anthracite mining are sufficient; (2) that wages cannot be increased without increasing the price of anthracite to such an extent as to drive the public to the use of bituminous coal, a cheaper and more abundant fuel; (3) that while the operators do not object to labor organizations, they will not allow such organizations to dictate who shall be employed or not employed in the mines; (4) that, considering the varying physical conditions of the mines, it is impracticable to adopt a uniform scale of wages for the whole region, but that each complaint and grievance should be investigated and treated separately and justly.

These propositions have the outward semblance of fairness, and would have carried more weight if they had been given to the public in an authoritative way at the beginning. They are open to criticism, more or less, and there would have been replies and rejoinders, rebutters and sur-rebutters, so that, long before the present time, the public would have been able to arrive at pretty sound conclusions as to the merits of the case. The question whether the present wages are fair and just cannot be determined by persons not engaged in the business. It cannot be determined dogmatically even by those who are so engaged, for when we come to examine Mr. Baer's reasons for his opinion, we are asked to take his affirmation that an increase of wages would drive the public to the use of bituminous coal, and so restrict the market for anthracite, and thus deprive the miners of anthracite of regular employment. It may be that the public ought to pay more for anthracite than it has been paying of late, or it may be that the rate of wages should be readjusted.

The latter conclusion is evidently favored by Commissioner Wright, who suggests that the operators should concede at once a nine-hour day to the men who are paid by the day, as an experiment for six months, in order to test its influence on production and its consequences generally. Mr. Wright's suggestions are six in number. The substance of them is that the mining of anthracite is subject to conditions so different from those of bituminous coal that it is impossible to govern the one by rules or terms applicable to the other; hence, that the attempt to control both by a single labor union is injudicious. There should be two separate unions, but they may properly be affiliated together, or may be affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. He holds that there should be a joint committee of conciliation of employers and employees, with powers to bind both parties in certain cases; that mining should be paid for by the ton wherever practicable, and that a fixed average should be established at each mine for deduction for impurities; and that there should be no interference with non-union men.

Collier's Weekly for September 6 has a communication from Mr. John Mitchell, President of the United Mine Workers of America, submitting the case of the miners in the present strike in the anthracite region. He says, first, that the proposition which he laid before the four railroad presidents on the 8th of May last, embodying the demands of the miners, was never given to the public by them, or by himself, until now. Since the whole controversy rests upon that proposition, we reprint it verbatim:

"Inasmuch as the anthracite mine operators have proposed to continue the present wage scale for one year, and inasmuch as the anthracite mine workers have unanimously resolved to ask that an increase of 20 per cent. should be paid on present prices to all men performing contract work, that eight hours should constitute a day's labor for all persons employed by the hour, day, or week, without any reduction in their present wage rate, and that coal should be weighed and paid for by weight wherever practicable; and inasmuch as in our recent conferences the anthracite mine workers and mine operators have failed to reach an agreement upon any of the questions at issue, we propose that the Industrial Branch of the National Civic Federation select a committee of five persons to arbitrate and decide all or any of the questions in dispute—the award of such board of arbitration to be binding upon both parties and effective for a period of one year."

In case this offer should be unacceptable, Mr. Mitchell proposed that a committee, consisting of Archbishop Ireland, Bishop Potter, and one other person to be selected by them, should be authorized to make an investigation into the wages and conditions of employment existing in the anthracite field, in order to decide whether the mine workers were able to make a decent living for their families, and to bring up their children properly, upon the compensation now paid to them; both sides to conform to any recommendations that such committee might make. To these alternative propositions, he says, no answer was received, except an informal intimation that there was nothing to arbitrate.

Mr. Mitchell denies point-blank that any "formal demand" has been made by the miners for a recognition of the union, leaving it to be inferred that an informal demand had been made. However that may be, Mr. Mitchell goes on to say in italic letters that "the real purpose of the coal operators, in refusing to coöperate with us with a view to ending this strike, is to destroy organization among their workmen"—an averment which Mr. Baer denies as emphatically as Mr. Mitchell denies the insinuation that the miners demand the exclusion of non-union men.

Mr. Mitchell's demand for higher pay for mining is divided into two parts—first, that men who are paid by the ton shall have an increase of 20 per cent., and that, for all persons who are paid by the day, eight hours (instead of ten) shall constitute a day's work, without any reduction in the present wage rate. The latter class would get no more money than they get now, but they would have more leisure. This needs explanation. It may be the aim of the miners' organization here to make room for a greater number of laborers, but it is certain that the economic condition of the present occupants of the places would not be improved, while the operator would get 20 per cent. less work for a given outlay. Mr. Mitchell says that anthracite miners ought to have as good pay as bituminous miners. His contention is not logical, unless he has some means to force the public to pay the difference when they go into the market to buy fuel.

And so stands the present situation, with General Jack Frost looming up on the horizon, and foreign coal pouring in.

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TOM JOHNSON TO THE FRONT.

The Ohio Democratic State Convention at Sandusky on September 3 must challenge the attention of politicians throughout the country. It revealed Tom L. Johnson as the absolute dictator of the Democratic organization this year, and apparently assured his nomination for Governor by the party next year. Moreover, it has given him a position of such importance that his views regarding the proper policy for the Democratic party to pursue with reference to the campaign of 1904 will carry great weight.

Mr. Johnson's victory marked the application to the whole State of the power which he has wielded over the Democrats of Cleveland during the past eighteen months. A year ago last April he ran for Mayor of the city, and was elected by a great majority. In the following November he secured the election to the Legislature from Cleveland of several members who accepted all that he stood for. During the past few months he has been steadily extending his influence throughout the State, until at last he was strong enough to invade Hamilton County (Cincinnati), so long controlled by John R. McLean, and to beat that boss in his home. After that, all was plain sailing. Mr. Johnson controlled the whole organization of the Convention, became its presiding officer, and saw the platform which he had written accepted without the change of a word.

The man who has thus come to the front in Ohio Democracy is one of the most interesting and picturesque figures developed in our politics for a number of years. A poor boy, he made himself very rich by availing himself of all the advantages allowed by our laws, and then denounced the very laws by which he had so greatly profited. Thus, he enjoyed the undue protection granted the manufacturers of steel, and declared his conviction that free trade is the best policy for this nation. He dealt in street railroads charging five-cent fares, making vast sums by some of these operations, as in Brooklyn a few years ago, and then came out as a champion of three-cent fares. He improved every opportunity offered to such a man by our present system of taxation, and at the same time was the earnest supporter of Henry George and a vigorous advocate of the single tax. In short, he comes about as near as possible to standing on the platform that the methods which enabled him to acquire great wealth are wrong and ought to be abolished. He appears to have a wonderful hold upon laboring men, especially those who come within the range of his personal influence. The ordinary Democratic politicians who have aspired to the nomination for Governor next year, and who went to Toledo to push their "claims," found themselves utterly neglected.

Mr. Johnson stands for radical principles regarding corporations. He would have all taxable property appraised by assessing boards at not less than its selling value. He would have the proceedings and deliberations of those boards open to the public, and a representative employed to present the interests of the public in all hearings. He would specifically provide that the property of steam railroads and other "public-service" corporations be assessed "at not less than their salable value as going concerns." He would require all "public-service" corporations to make sworn public reports, and would give the power of visitation and examination over such corporations to the proper auditing officers, "to the end that the true value of the privileges had by such corporations may be made plain to the people." There are minor provisions, but here are quite enough to startle and alarm the average corporation man.

While Mr. Johnson urged that State issues should be pressed in the pending State campaign, he took pains to declare his position in regard to national politics. His platform expressly endorsed the Kansas City platform of 1900, and personally commended the candidate who stood upon that platform. Nor did he stop here. In his speech he served notice that nobody can be a good Democrat in 1902, 1903, or the first half of 1904 who is not ready to accept the platform of 1900 until that of the next Presidential campaign shall be framed. The Democrats of Ohio, he declared, can identify themselves unmistakably with the Democratic party of the republic "only by acknowledging the authority of the latest national expression of party doctrine on national questions"; and, of course, the rule must apply everywhere. This means that the new leader of Ohio Democracy will oppose the "reorganizers" in the party who would put a stigma upon Bryan, and who would have Democratic State conventions ignore the Kansas City platform, as was done deliberately in Indiana a few weeks ago, in Michigan somewhat later, and in Wisconsin on Wednesday week. He stands with those Democrats in Missouri, Arkansas, North Carolina, and other States in the South and West who have "reaffirmed" the Kansas City platform, and with that element in the Iowa Democracy which on September 3 fought for Bryanism on the convention floor, and cast 344 votes, as against 384 for omitting all mention of the Kansas City platform. This element is particularly strong in regions where the feeling against "the Money Power" is most pronounced; and many Democrats of this type openly say that they would rather have the Republicans carry the Presidency again than support a so-called "conservative" Democrat who represents the "reorganizing" element in the party.

THE JOINT MANŒUVRES.

Undoubtedly, the most striking fact about the joint army and navy manœuvres just concluded at the eastern end of Long Island Sound was their failure to hold the public's attention. For this there were several reasons—among others, the impossibility of getting clear accounts of what was happening, or of knowing which side had really won a glorious and bloodless victory. The descent upon the fleet of the Duchess of Marlborough on the "eve of hostilities" made the very beginning ridiculous. But, even before that, the lame conclusion of the navy game played in Massachusetts Bay, when Commander Pillsbury's fleet gave up an impossible task, regulated by impossible conditions, in broad daylight, and under circumstances which distinctly suggested opéra bouffe, had made the public turn to more important and more civilized things.

As to the value of this particular war-game, there is necessarily considerable difference of opinion. To one of our morning contemporaries it was so serious and so vital an event as to call for violent denunciation of any one who commits the offence of *lèse-majesté* by poking fun at the Gilbertian combination of a war fleet and a gallant admiral held up by a Duchess and a cup of tea. But it may be asked in all seriousness whether the problem presented to the navy was not from the beginning an insoluble one, and whether the outcome was not a foregone conclusion, provided conditions on both sides could be made to approximate those of war time.

If there has been anything clearly taught by our recent warring in different quarters of the globe, it is the weakness of floating guns when directed against shore fortifications. Even in the civil war this was demonstrated time and time again. The monitors were defeated in every attempt to take Charleston, and wasted endless powder and shell in fruitless bombardments of forts all along the coast. Every one can remember the "terrific damage" done by the *New York* off Matanzas in 1898, and with what denunciations of Spanish mendacity we received the news that one hapless mule was the sole victim of her Yankee gunners. Yet the mule was the only living thing killed during this engagement. Admiral Sampson believed that he could have reduced the batteries at Havana, but fear of the inevitable loss attendant upon the undertaking prevented his getting permission to make the attempt. Afterwards the very slight damage done to the land batteries by the fleet off Santiago and San Juan proved to many the wisdom of the Department's decision in regard to Havana. It also demonstrated the fact that Cervera's fleet and the Spanish troops might have held Santiago indefinitely had there not been an investing army to assail them from the rear.

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In the taking of the Taku forts from the Chinese in June, 1900, they were assailed by a combined foreign fleet of British, Russian, Japanese, French, and German ships. Here, as at Forts Donelson and Henry in our civil war, it was the land force which captured the fortifications, and Lieut. W. C. Davidson reported to the United States Naval Institute that, save for the exploding of an exposed magazine, the forts were practically undamaged, and that "but for the assault of the landing party they could not have been taken." Another American naval officer to give interesting testimony to the ineffectiveness of naval guns when used upon land fortifications is Lieutenant-Commander Bradley A. Fiske, who served on the *Petrel*, *Monadnock*, and *Yorktown* during the war with Spain and the Philippine insurrection. In some "Personal Recollections" contributed to the *United Service Magazine*, he says of the results of a punitive expedition of four ships to drive several hundred Filipinos out of intrenchments at San Fernando:

> "This little engagement emphasized to me the small damage done by ship-fire to towns. Undoubtedly we silenced the fire of the insurgents, but I have no reason to think that we did very much military harm. All the insurgents had to do was to lie down on their stomachs behind their simple entrenchments, and let us shoot away our ammunition and set fire to a few houses. It would have been foolish for us to try to land, and so we steamed away."

His experience with the *Monadnock's* and *Petrel's* guns in other bombardments led him to similar conclusions.

It may therefore be accepted as an approved lesson of military history that land fortifications cannot be reduced by any fleet, unless it is accompanied by an army capable of landing at once to take possession or to assault fortifications. It is impossible, of course, to say that the late manœuvres will teach the same lesson, for it would be foolish to forecast the outcome of the battle of umpires, whose individual judgments in each movement must necessarily be affected by local circumstances, by weather conditions, and at night by the darkness. From the strictly military point of view it would have been well if no attempt had been made to get a decision as to victors and vanquished. Whatever benefits will result will be gained solely from the added experience in gun drill and searchlight practice of the crews ashore and afloat.

Such announcements as that "unexpected weaknesses have been developed in the Fisher's Sound forts" must be viewed in the light of the obvious efforts to use the manœuvres as a lever to get larger appropriations from Congress. They cannot affect the historic and indisputable fact that there is no navy powerful enough to conquer an American seaport without the help of an enormous army, against the oversea transportation of which the Atlantic is itself a perfect, and the cheapest, defence. Of the spectacle of a mighty republic which has risen to true greatness by its devotion to commerce and the arts of peace, engaged in playing at killing human beings 1902 years after the birth of the Prince of Peace, we shall not speak at this time.

THE FINANCIAL SITUATION.

The full text of the London *Times's* editorial article on the financial situation in America contains much food for thought. We do not suppose that the *Times* has any better means of judging our position, so far as concerns the facts that govern it, than are available to critics in this country. But a thoughtful foreign critic nevertheless enjoys two advantages over home observers. He can judge current developments from a distance, not under the influences which, with observers on the spot, are apt to distort facts from their true relation to one another. And, being a foreigner, he is free from that very dangerous tendency which makes prediction of a continued "boom" a kind of patriotism.

The *Times* frankly confesses that expectation of immediate disaster—widely entertained last spring by critics of American finance—is proving to be erroneous. It shows the reason why such beliefs were held and why they have been abandoned. "The dice have fallen kind"; one of the largest harvests in our history is about to be gathered in, with consequent substantial increase both in domestic wealth and in our power of discharging foreign liabilities. Had the harvest failed, the reckoning for our capital inflation and the expanded floating debt of our bankers on the European markets would have come as the critics had predicted. As it is, the *Times* declares that "the day when financial trouble will be experienced by the United States has been postponed for another eight or nine months, and possibly, if no further commitments are entered upon, for an even longer period."

We should be reluctant, even conceding all the *Times's* premises, to fix with assurance on any date. Economic phenomena do not arrive on schedule time; in fact, they are very apt to come when the community has ceased to look for them. England itself has lately provided a noteworthy illustration of this principle. Trade prostration, and, in particular, depression on London's Stock Exchange, was to end with the peace treaty in South Africa. There were, to be sure, some cautious prophets with their warnings that the "boom" might not come in such proportions as optimists alleged. But the "turn" was fixed by all for the opening of June. Every one knows what sort of fulfilment these predictions had. Consols to-day are down nearly five points from their price on the day when peace was formally announced; English markets generally have fallen into renewed depression. Nor do we lack experience of our own. No one will have forgotten the repeated predictions that a reckoning for our silver debauchery in 1890 was about to be demanded. The reckoning came, but it came when prophets who named dates were weary, and when the rest of the community had about concluded that it would not come at all. So with the recovery which was to follow the repeal of the Sherman Act in 1893.

In the light of these various experiences, we should say that the *Times* is somewhat premature in declaring that trouble is to come at such-and-such a date. Nothing has been made more plain, in the course of the last three years, than the fact that this country's financial resources had been underestimated. Its capacity for development, its power of legitimate expansion in genuine wealth, were greater than the most hopeful had imagined. We are not speaking now of the stock market, which, after all, is only the mirror or barometer of underlying conditions. The country's tangible achievements, which are now matters of every-day commonplace, have been such as the most buoyant imagination, half a dozen years ago, would not have ventured to suggest. Nor should it be forgotten that the forward impetus, created by such remarkable achievements, is not an easy thing to measure. If it is true, as it often has been in the past, that reaction, when it comes, is proportioned to the scale of the previous expansion, it is also true that the power to carry along industrial prosperity even beyond the lines of safe conservatism must also bear some ratio to the original propelling forces.

It may be said, therefore, that American prosperity is continuing, and that the signs are on the whole more favorable than they were twelve months ago. We have no short crops to complicate the situation. Even cotton, which has cheated the high hopes based on the first month of the crop, will apparently yield pretty much the average of the last three years. There is no complaint from mercantile or industrial circles. Our export trade, cut down $112,000,000, wholly because of the decreased agricultural supplies, ought fairly to rehabilitate itself when the new and abundant cereal crops begin to move.

Our readers will observe that we have not yet touched that part of the subject on which the warnings of last season were chiefly based. It is the overcapitalization in our money market which must give us pause, even when conceding the most encouraging results in actual trade and commerce. That huge sums of capital are tied up in enterprises whose more or less inflated securities the investing public still fights very shy of, is a perfectly well-known fact. There is no reason to suppose that in

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this regard the situation has improved, with this one exception—and the exception is significant—that the ability of the promoters of these schemes to borrow for their purposes is increased. "There will," the London *Times* admits, after speaking of our abundant coming harvests, "be plenty of means of borrowing fresh money in London, Paris, and perhaps Berlin." But the *Times* says further, what was pretty well known before to financiers, that already "the amount of money lent by Europe on short loan to the United States is larger than it ever was before." Short loans may be recalled—as they were by Europe, under extremely disquieting circumstances, exactly a year ago. Recall to-day of the several hundred millions thus advanced by the foreign institutions would be more awkward than last autumn; for the sufficiently well-known reason that our banks are less able now than they were then to assume the burden. Instead of paying off these liabilities, it is the present immediate purpose of the bank community to borrow more from Europe, in order to restore our deficient cash reserves.

Had plans for inflating capital and promoting huge corporate amalgamations been completed, so that the problem of the future might be only the distribution of securities created but not yet absorbed, it would be easier to foretell the outcome. The absorption process might be troublesome, as it was after 1882; it might be prolonged, and it might cause occasional convulsion in the money market. Probably all this would happen. But, at any rate, the community would be assured that the process of restoring true equilibrium was at work. Misgivings based on the knowledge that these huge undertakings, with their masses of unsold stocks and bonds carried on bank loans, were at the mercy of any money-market accident, have been perfectly warranted; but they would be lighter if the end of the process were in sight. But is it? That is the question which the financial critic of the day must face. The *Times* suggests a potent factor in the case when it quotes the view of the London market that "the great American financiers have no choice but to go on in the path they marked out for themselves when they had once entered on it." Can the efforts for control through amalgamation cease, so long as a powerful opposition stands outside to threaten all that has been already done? If not, what is to be the consequence? "Unless," the *Times* very properly concludes, "we are to accept the new-fangled doctrine that, in some mysterious way, the laws of economics need not be taken into account where America is concerned, the present state of things and the present fashion of finance cannot go on for ever." Thus regarded, the developments of the coming season ought to possess extraordinary interest.

THE LAW OF FOREST AND MOUNTAIN.

It is often said that there is no law without a penalty. This maxim will not bear close scrutiny; and it may not be unprofitable to examine a case in which a code depends absolutely upon the unforced assent of those to whom it applies. We speak of the code which regulates the use of private property by woodsmen and mountaineers. The mountain hut and the forest camp, although absolutely unpoliced and practically beyond the jurisdiction of statute law, are protected by a sentiment which amounts to law and yet has no recourse against breaches of the custom of the region. You may leave your valuables on a trail in the Northwest secure of finding them again, and you may, under well-understood restrictions, use any camp in the woods of Maine or Canada. Similarly the mountain shelters of the Appalachian or Alpine Clubs, or those erected at private expense, are free to all who traverse the mountains. And the rules for their use by the casual occupant are so explicit as to have the value of law, and as binding as if a thousand penalties and precedents enforced each article. We are dealing with a very different code from Mr. Kipling's "law of the jungle"—the rule "of hoof and of claw"; we are examining the case of men free to be lawless, who, under a code of some complexity, are scrupulously a law unto themselves.

The limits of mountain law have been recently illustrated among the ice valleys of Mont Blanc. M. Joseph Vallot has for twelve years maintained a mountain observatory near the summit of this great mountain. The building was supplied with the usual instruments, and was fully provisioned. Near at hand he had erected a mountain hut for the use of all climbers, which has frequently harbored bewildered wanderers on the upper reaches, and has undoubtedly been the means of saving many lives. This hut proved too narrow for two German tourists who decided to make a stay of several days beside the Dôme du Goûter. So, acting under mountain law as they supposed, they broke into the observatory, helped themselves to the provisions, and made themselves free of all its accommodations, offering on their return to repay the owner for the food actually consumed. M. Vallot, learning meanwhile that his instruments had been disturbed, brought suit against the trespassers.

How jealously mountain law is guarded is shown by the protests which everywhere arose in Switzerland. M. Vallot had no difficulty in proving himself in the right, but the case brought out very clearly certain principles in mountaineering ethics. It was shown that the invaders were not storm-bound, but could at any time have descended to the valley. It was held that they entered the observatory, not in their need, but for their greater convenience. Every one declared that they had no right merely to prolong a holiday in this fashion, and that mountain custom granted them only the occupancy of the hut, not the right to enter the larger building or to use the provisions. It might be added that the offer to reimburse M. Vallot for the provisions was highly improper. They should have promptly replaced them after due notification. Thus, quite apart from the graver charge of vandalism, these two climbers were found in contempt of mountain law. Henceforth their mountaineering reputation, except in Coventry, will be of the worst.

The principle involved is clearly that of reasonable use. Illustrations might be cited indefinitely. One may not plan for a week in the woods, and then keep on from shelter to shelter for a month; yet if one, through an unforeseen mishap, needs food and shelter, they are his to take where he finds them, and upon the sole condition that he respect the property he uses and make good as soon as possible any impairment of its stores. Any Appalachian Club shelter in the White Mountains, with all its utensils, is free to every pedestrian until the tiny building is full. Beyond that point, members of the club justly require outsiders to give way; but the case almost never arises. In all these matters a fine sense of delicacy is shown by those who do not always receive credit for that quality. No logging camp in the country would refuse its best to a belated woodsman, and none would receive pay for any trouble and expense which his succor required; but these same lumbermen would decline to be used as a convenience by a party of improvident campers not actually in distress.

Into the minuter articles of mountain and wood law it is superfluous to go. One does something for the neglected or ill-defined trail over which he passes, not out of surplus benevolence, but because the unwritten law prescribes the lopping of the bush, the freshening of the blaze, or the rebuilding of the cairn. One takes a stray hound only to the next clearing, because such is forest law. Under this code most of the meannesses and crimes that are incident to civilization vanish. It is as if the vast solitariness of the forest and the mountain reproduced itself in a kind of largeness of soul in the woodsman and mountaineer. He feels more vividly than the man in the multitude the solemnity of any act that concerns another individual. In town you cannot safely leave an overcoat on the rack with the door ajar; in the North Woods you may leave in an open

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shack the best gun that the forges of England, Belgium, or American can produce, and passers-by, who perfectly know its value, will hardly give it a second look. Human nature resents anarchy as Nature abhors a vacuum. And woodlife and mountain life would be very anarchy without stricter laws and finer morals than suffice for the abodes of men. The loss of a camp axe would put the owner to the gravest inconveniences, the depletion of a store of provisions might bring a party to the verge of starvation, the theft of a gun might mean a crueller but no less certain death than a bullet through its owner's heart.

It is salutary that, from time to time, men should thus be brought face to face with the whole consequences of their deeds; and it is creditable to human nature that it responds so trustily to the test. It is refreshing, too, to find a realm of law in which stern penalties are unnecessary, and it is strange that the advocates of philosophical anarchy have neglected the striking analogy which lies to their hand in the law of forest and mountain.

BISHOP TALLEYRAND.—I.

PARIS, August 27, 1902.

A complete biography of the famous Talleyrand, founded on original documents, has yet to be written, though there is already an extensive Talleyrand "literature," and though we possess his own Memoirs, which were published by the late Duke de Broglie. We know that Talleyrand left these Memoirs to M. de Bacourt, after having suppressed or sophisticated many parts of it, and that further changes or suppressions were made by M. de Bacourt himself. Talleyrand's figuring as Minister of Napoleon, and afterwards as one of the great actors in the dramas of 1814 and 1815, has almost completely overshadowed the other parts of his life; his early career as Bishop of Autun is quite forgotten, and we must be grateful to M. Bernard de Lacombe for having given us, quite recently, a most interesting sketch of Talleyrand as Bishop.

Charles-Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord was commonly called the Abbé de Périgord. As one of his legs was a little shorter than the other, his parents decided, though he was the eldest son, to make him a priest. It could be said of him, what Cardinal Retz said of himself in his Memoirs, that "he had the least ecclesiastical soul in the world." In 1838, Talleyrand, in making his retractation, wrote to the Pope: "The respect which I owe to those from whom I received life, does not forbid me to say that my whole youth was directed to a profession for which I had no natural aptitude." Talleyrand gives in his Memoirs a vivid picture of his life as a seminarist. He once met, near Saint-Sulpice, a young actress, who had taken refuge in a doorway while it rained. He had an umbrella and offered it to her. Like himself, she had been contraried in her tastes: "Her parents," he said, "had forced her to go on the stage; I had entered the seminary unwillingly."

After having left Saint-Sulpice, he received from the King the valuable sinecure of the Abbey of Saint-Denis, in the diocese of Reims, which gave him a revenue of 18,000 francs. He led a frivolous and worldly life, though he continued uninterruptedly his theological studies. The Abbé de Périgord was a marvellous "causeur." He became a rival of Boufflers, of the Prince de Ligne, of Ségur, the kings of conversation at the time. He counted among his acquaintances the Duke de Lauzun, Chamfort, Marmontel, Mirabeau; he saw nearly every day Madame de Genlis. Greuze has left us a portrait of the Abbé, in a blue coat, a white waistcoat, chamois-color breeches, a cravat of fine linen, very high in the neck. Talleyrand saw Voltaire twice, and was one of the witnesses of his funeral.

In 1780 the Province of Tours, which had that year the nomination of one of the two general agents of the clergy, named the Abbé de Périgord. The function of these agents was to represent the clergy before the King and his ministers; they participated in the council of ecclesiastical affairs, the management of the church property. Talleyrand astonished everybody by the qualities which he developed in these delicate functions. He had the reputation of a wit. He acquired the reputation of a man of great ability. In the Assembly of the Church, in 1780, he was appointed "promoter," and had to make several important reports; among others, one on the free gift of fifteen millions made by the Church for the expenses of the American war.

In 1785 Talleyrand was appointed secretary of the Assembly of the Church, and made at the end of the session a report which was very much admired. It was at that time that he was thick with Turgot, Malesherbes, Maurepas, and Calonne. His ambition was to be made a bishop; it was almost a rule that the general agents of the Church should obtain bishoprics at the expiration of their mission. But the levity of Talleyrand's life was for a time an obstacle; he had to wait two years. He owed the bishopric at last to the friendship of Louis XVI. for his father, Charles-Daniel de Talleyrand, who had been a companion of the King in his youth, a soldier in the Seven Years' War, and who sent word from his deathbed to the King that he asked him as a last favor to take his son into his good graces.

Charles-Maurice, the Abbé, was thirty-four years old when Louis XVI., triumphing over his scruples, appointed him, on the 2d of November, 1788, Bishop of Autun. This was but a small bishopric, yielding an income of only about 22,000 livres; but it was one of the most illustrious. Beside the old remains of Roman splendor—theatres, aqueducts, monumental gates—were many Christian monuments—churches, convents, chapels. The Cathedral of Saint-Lazare was renowned for its fine Roman and Gothic architecture. At the same time that Talleyrand was appointed Bishop, he received from the Count d'Artois the Abbey of Celles, which had an income of 7,500 livres. Talleyrand made the usual preparatory retreat at Issy, and his consecration took place on the 18th of January, 1789. He received the day afterwards from the Archbishop of Paris the pallium, an ornament of white wool sprinkled with black crosses, which generally belongs only to the metropolitan; but the Bishops of Autun had had the privilege of wearing it since the year 600, when Pope Gregory the Great gave it to Bishop Syagrius and his successors.

Talleyrand considered his bishopric merely as a stepping-stone to the government of the country; he had entered the Church by compulsion—his ambition had other aims. He for a time hoped to be made a cardinal direct, like Mazarin, a foreigner, an Italian, who found himself Prime Minister without ever having been a bishop. Once a bishop, he remembered Richelieu and Fleury, who had each been a bishop before becoming Prime Minister. France was agitated by the convocation of the States-General. Talleyrand felt that new times were coming; he was prepared for them by his superior knowledge, his familiarity with the leading men of the time, the independence of his mind, and a certain sort of skepticism—we might say of cynicism—which nothing could astonish or trouble.

The episcopal consecration in no wise changed his habits, but he performed with much decorum the duties imposed on him. He at once, on January 26, sent a mandamus to the clergy of his diocese, recalling the words of Saint Paul: "Testis est mihi Deus quod sine intermissione memoriam vestri feci." The mandamus is in parts very eloquent and almost touching. Talleyrand did not, however, show much haste to go to his diocese. He left Paris only when he thought it necessary to go to Autun in order to promote his election to the States-General. The electors were convoked in all the provinces. The Prince de Condé, Governor of Burgundy, summoned specially by assignation "the Lord Bishop of Autun" to appear in person at the General Assembly of his order. Talleyrand arrived at Autun on the 12th of March, and on the 15th took formal possession of the episcopal palace. He received the chapter, and, after the bulls of the Holy See had been read, he took in Latin, in a loud voice, the oath which had been taken for centuries by the Bishops of Autun:

"I swear by the Holy Gospels, and promise to observe inviolably and to defend all the privileges, liberties, franchises, immunities, statutes, exemptions, rights, and customs of the Church of Autun. . . . I will undertake nothing, in any way, directly or indirectly, against the said privileges, exemptions, and rights, whether my church owes them to the generous will of the Roman pontiffs, the emperors, the kings, dukes, and princes, or whether they have been liberally granted by the Bishops of Autun, my predecessors; so help me God!"

A great ceremony in the Cathedral followed the reception of the chapter, and at the end of it Talleyrand gave a solemn benediction to the people.

Talleyrand did not lose a day for his election. He entered seriously upon all his duties, in order to conciliate his clergy; he made many pastoral visits; he showed a most affectionate interest in the affairs of the Sulpicians and of the Oratorians; he defended the regular clergy against the secular clergy, without offending anybody. At the time of the election, two hundred and nine ecclesiastical electors arrived at Autun. They assembled at the Seminary, where they prepared their "cahier," or bill of grievances. Talleyrand presided at their meetings; he showed deference to the advice of all, even the most humble priests;

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he charmed the assembly by his courtesy, his spirit of conciliation, the clearness of his views, which were all practical and sensible. His election was assured, and he made a sort of programme of the deliberations of the assembly at Autun. This programme is a quite remarkable document, and deserves to be read even now. In the preamble, Talleyrand set forth the necessity of a Constitution:

"It is indispensable that the National Assembly should occupy itself, before all, with a Constitution of the State, comprising several fundamental points: to renew the solemn adhesion of all Frenchmen to the monarchical Constitution; to prepare a charter stipulating the invariable rights of all; to declare that henceforth no public act shall become a general law of the kingdom if the nation has not solemnly approved it; to preserve the undeniable and exclusive right of the nation to establish subsidies, to modify them, to limit them, and to regulate their employment; to establish the basis of a proper national representation, beginning with the parishes; . . . to create provincial assemblies."

The rights of liberty and property were to be considered as the fundamental points of the Constitution. Talleyrand's *cahier* asked for the remodelling of criminal jurisprudence, the institution of the jury, the inviolability of private correspondence. We can recognize already in this notable document the ideas which inspired the Minister of Louis XVIII., and which determined Talleyrand to give his support to Louis-Philippe after the Revolution of 1830.

Talleyrand was elected deputy of the clergy by a large majority. He had remained only a week at Autun. He left it, not to see it again till thirteen years had elapsed. His relations with his diocese took the form of a correspondence, agreeable at first, and afterwards very bitter—so bitter that it had to be interrupted. The stormy times of the Revolution were approaching, and Talleyrand was to play a very important part in the Constituent Assembly.

Correspondence.

SCIENTIFIC HISTORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his supplementary note of August 21, Prof. W. E. Dodd, by claiming that his letter in the *Nation* of August 7 was meant to be based on the conception of "scientific history," has touched upon one of the most pregnant questions in historical study in this country to-day, one worthy of discussion, as it seems to me. Professor Dodd gives no definition of the phrase, seeming to proceed on the assumption that there is substantial agreement as to the meaning; but this is to be doubted. It is easy to name books which nearly every historical student of standing would pronounce unscientific; but what about as large a list which the same number would consider scientific? What would be the vote on Macaulay's England? on Froude's England? on Green's England? All these have mistakes, as have also the most careful studies, but what proportion of errors can a man make before being excluded from the circle of scientific students? Again, how much of the author's individuality can come in before he is condemned as being below the standard? How far shall previous bias, sympathy, prejudice, be allowed to enter, without vitiating the author's title to scientific? Besides, what distinction is there between scientific history and other history?

Although I attended the leading graduate historical department in this country at that time, I am afraid I have not a clear notion of the matter. I cannot recall that Prof. H. B. Adams ever gave any formal deliverance on it; in fact, I am rather certain that he did not use the term very often. But in my own work I have felt that the words are not mere sounds, and that they have a reality at bottom that demands differentiation. As a feeble contribution towards a solution of the problem, I have a figure of speech drawn from legal conditions to indicate my notions in the rough. It seems to me that, aside from the sources, history writing may be divided into two great classes—that of the advocate who, with preconceived purpose, sets out to win the jury to his side; and that of the judge who, in passionless manner, without ulterior motive, sums up the points, emphasizes the important ones, with the aim of aiding the jury to reach a true verdict. Both deal with the evidence, but the lawyer puts his personality into it, at times twists, misstates, falsifies; while the arbiter on the bench is to handle it with the cold spirit that a chemist has in handling acid, crucible, and formula.

From this conception, if we leave out some exceptional cases, we may deduce four indispensable marks of scientific history: (1) the judicial temperament that dispassionately views all sides so as to get the correct gauge for truth; (2) an exhaustive knowledge of the subject based on (a) what is absolutely necessary, original sources (evidence), and (b) on secondary data, other treatment of same topic (precedents); (3) fitting style, comprising accuracy of statement, clearness of expression, plain distinction between knowledge and inference, so that the careful reader rapidly and truly gets the idea of the author; (4) reference, exact when possible, to the authority for essential points. It is easy to see that (3) may dwindle to a remnant, in an edition of writings for instance; and that (4) may disappear entirely on account of limitations of space. But the author must be fully equipped with both, and ready to bring them into play when required. Many subjects do not allow this method.

This crude effort at stating my position may be further elucidated by mentioning three concrete examples, Ropes, Livermore, and Jameson, who, on the most difficult subjects in our history, well exemplify, so far as I know, the above conception, though I admit great differences in the quantity of the output of the three. I do not undervalue other works or men, as I recognize that there are examples of both, of wider appeal and of greater direct influence, that may at the same time be just as scientific; but these three occur to me now as types of this advanced idea of historiography.

Yours truly, C. Meriwether.

Washington, D. C., September 1, 1902.

TIBERIUS THE TYRANT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The learned reviewer of Mr. J. C. Tarver's 'Tiberius the Tyrant' (*Nation*, 1902, II., p. 136) has overlooked the fact that the first historian who pleaded the case of Tiberius against Tacitus with a serious knowledge of Roman imperial institutions, was my lamented friend Victor Duruy, the best Minister of Public Instruction that France ever had, and the founder of that excellent institution, the École des Hautes Études. Duruy's work appeared in 1853; it was a Latin thesis for the doctorate, entitled 'De Tiberio Imperatore' (98 pp., 8vo). A summary of it can be found in that useful and little known work, Mourier and Deltour's 'Notice sur le Doctorat ès lettres; suivie du catalogue et de l'analyse des thèses' (Paris: Delalain, p. 136-137). Duruy often told me that the *soutenance*—that is, the public discussion—of his thesis at the Sorbonne created quite a sensation; he was accused of defending a tyrant, of upholding a paradox, etc. There is a curious chapter on the subject in Désiré Nisard's posthumous 'Souvenirs' (1888, I., p. 87), with a graphic description of that discussion, in which Nisard, who was one of the judges, spoke in favor of Duruy's opinion against the *doyen*, Victor Le Clerc.

Truly yours, Salomon Reinach.

Paris, August 28, 1902.

AMERICAN TEXT-BOOKS OF THE CLASSICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It seems to me there are just grounds for adverse criticism of many of our text-books of the ancient classics. It is hard to see for whom they are intended. I have before me an annotated edition of one of Plato's Dialogues that contains references to nearly all the other dialogues, to the three tragic poets, to Demosthenes, to some half-a-dozen large German works, not to mention books more easily accessible. A good deal of space is also given to bibliography and to critical discussions of the text. Very little of this *apparatus criticus* is of any value to the student. He cannot understand it unless it is explained to him by the teacher; he never has the books referred to, and rarely has access to them if he would use them, while not one in a thousand can make anything out of a citation to a German work. Yet we are offered "notes for the use of students." This show of erudition can be of service to the scholar only, and he does not need it.

Comparing this little volume with Cron's edition of the "Apology," we find a remarkable difference. When a passage in a Greek or Latin author is referred to, it is almost always given in full. The learner has thus no difficulty in getting out of it what there is in it of value to him. This is the general plan according to which German text-books are edited. So far as I have used or looked through British text-books, they, like the German, are characterized by paucity of references even to grammars. Moreover, textual criticism, except of passages of unusual importance or of unusual difficulty, is generally avoided. The editor adopts the reading which he believes to be best authenticated, and is silent about the rest. It may be argued that we are wiser than our transatlantic confrères, but I fear the facts are against us. It is probable that both German and English students are generally more firmly grounded in the grammar than ours; but for that very reason they are better qualified to profit by more extensive references, if they were supposed to be of service.

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I believe that, generally speaking, our notes to difficult authors, like Herodotus, Plato, Thucydides, and the poets, are too meagre. It would often be a real pedagogical gain to the learner if a hard passage were paraphrased for him. Knowing thus in a general way what the author meant, he should be required to give his exact meaning in the best English he could command. He would not then have to struggle with both the Greek and the English at the same time. There are signs that we are carrying the so-called scientific method to extremes in the study of literature. It is well to select a few passages from representative authors for minute dissection; but to take up all the student's time in this way is not likely to bring him much profit. Suppose he has a fixed number of hours to spend on the 'Aeneid.' Would it be most conducive to the cultivation of his taste—that is, to his education—to employ them all on the first book, counting the number of instances of alliteration, of initial sibilants, of verbs belonging to each of the four conjugations, and more of the same sort, or in reading the entire poem intelligently, but without special attention to all sorts of minutiæ?

To study literature as we study the natural sciences may be compared to the study of animal life from the specimens in our museums of natural history. Yet it is by just such a method that many of our annotators would lead us; and they are laying their blighting hand, not only upon works in foreign languages, but on those in English. We cannot expect to instruct more than a very small proportion of our students in Greek and Latin so well that they will continue to read these languages through life. But we ought, at least, to be able, by means of classic writers, to give them a life interest in and an enjoyment of good literature.

There are doubtless many men now living who know more about Greek and Latin than Plato or Virgil; for *they* probably concerned themselves as little about language, either grammatically or philologically, as Ruskin or Tennyson. But when we compare the ancients with the moderns in the power to use these languages with vigor and effect, there is hardly enough left of the latter to base a comparison on. The analytical or scientific study of a language or languages is a department of knowledge just like Egyptology or botany or chemistry. It can be pursued about as well with Bantu or Anglo-Saxon as with Greek and Latin; it is not necessary to a liberal education. On the other hand, no man can be called educated who is not, at least in some degree, familiar with one of the world's great literatures. C. W. Super.

Athens, Ohio, September 1, 1902.

PROPERTY IN LETTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The question raised by your correspondent of August 28, in regard to property in letters, is one that deserves wide publicity.

I recently wrote a personal and confidential letter to the President of the Board of Regents of a State university in regard to a person who was a candidate for a position in the faculty. After the appointment was made, this letter was given to the candidate. A few years since, I wrote the President of one of the great Eastern universities concerning an applicant for a fellowship. This letter was also returned to the candidate. Another letter, written by a friend, protesting against the prospective appointment of an unfit candidate, was also sent—presumably by mistake—to the applicant.

The point at issue would seem to be so plain as to need no elucidation or explanation, yet in some way it needs to be made clear to those having the appointing power that they will continue to receive the Delphic communications of which they so justly complain if they, on their part, adopt the plan of returning to applicants for positions all letters written *about* them as well as *to* them. Many persons, like myself, have made it a rule never, under any circumstances whatsoever, to write a letter of recommendation to be presented personally by an applicant. The rule is made for the sake of writing with absolute frankness, of writing in the interests of education and not of those of a particular candidate. If college authorities, however, are to return either to successful or to unsuccessful candidates personal and confidential letters written them concerning these candidates, many persons will be tempted to extend the application of the rule, and in future to write no letters either to a candidate or for a candidate.—Yours truly, L. M. S.

Poughkeepsie, N. Y., September 2, 1902.

A PLEA FOR COMPOSERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A custom, brought over from England and rapidly gaining ground in this country, challenges a word of opposition before it gets beyond bounds and makes impossible the setting of modern words to modern music.

Perhaps, by stating a few facts, the case may be most easily made plain. For instance, a composer happens upon a volume of poems in which he finds some verses suggesting a musical thought, which develops into a song. The composer, remembering that the poem is by an English poet, published in New York and copyrighted in England, writes to the publisher asking permission to print the song; the publisher replies, granting permission, provided the composer see that the name of the poet, the name of the volume from which the verses are taken, and the name of the publisher all be printed on each copy of the song, and, in addition, that the composer send the sum of $35 to the publisher for the use (not exclusive) of the verses, $25 to go to the poet and $10 to the publisher. A similar application to another publisher for permission to print a song brought the same answer, with the difference that the sum demanded was $15, and in this case the poem was by an American, published in America.

Now the practical side of the matter is this: The first song in question would sell perhaps for forty cents a copy, catalogue price. As the composer's royalty is 10 per cent. on this price, it would be necessary to sell 900 copies of the song to cover the fee of $35 to the poet and publisher before the composer could receive a penny. Now, everybody knows that few songs sell more than 900 copies and that many sell less; so it is all a lottery, in which the composer should have a winning chance, instead of assuming all the risk. The poet has already received royalty for his book containing the poem, and, although good words are better than poor words, it is the music that sells the song, and if the music should not happen to please, the words alone would never sell a copy.

In England, where the custom started, the composer writes a song, pays for the words (for a poem of Tennyson's, five guineas, it is said), the publisher prints the song, in many cases gives a series of concerts to introduce it with other new publications, not only pays a singer to sing it, but also pays him a royalty on every copy sold, making it worth his while to sing it as often as he can—a system of machine politics, rotten for art, but not without its commercial advantages.

In America the publisher prints a song, advertises it in his catalogue, and if a singer happens to take the song up, well and good; otherwise it is left to make its own way.

In view of these facts, would it not be better, instead of importing a custom from England, where the conditions are so different, to establish one of our own? And since poet and publisher are both freely advertised on each copy of the song, ought this not to be sufficient compensation to the poet for the use of his poem, for which he has already been paid? If not, then let the composer agree to share with the poet the royalty until the poet shall have received $10, $15, or $20, according to the agreement. Such an arrangement would give the composer a chance of covering his expenses, recognize the claims of the poet, and settle a question which, at present, is open to the caprice of every publisher and poet in America to settle as they may please. A Writer of Songs.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s autumn list embraces Lyman Abbott's Life of Henry Ward Beecher; T. W. Higginson's 'Longfellow,' Professor Woodberry's 'Hawthorne,' Professor Carpenter's 'Whittier,' and Professor Bourne's 'Motley,' in the American Men of Letters Series; John W. Chadwick's 'Channing'; Lowell's Anti-Slavery Papers, in two volumes; 'Life and Correspondence of Henry Ingersoll Bowditch,' by his son Vincent Y. Bowditch; 'Daniel Ricketson and his Friends,' by Anna and Walton Ricketson; 'Reminiscences,' by John T. Trowbridge; 'Texas,' by Prof. George P. Garrison; 'American Navigation,' by William W. Bates; 'American Diplomacy in the Orient,' by John W. Foster; 'Historical Geography of the United States,' by Ellen C. Semple; 'Tracts relating to the Currency of the Massachusetts Bay, 1682-1720,' by Andrew McFarland Davis; 'Correspondence of the Colonial Governors of Rhode Island, 1723-1775,' edited by Gertrude S. Kimball; 'Where American Independence Began' (Quincy, Mass.), by Daniel Munro Wilson; 'The Silva of North America,' concluding volumes xiii. and xiv., with index, by Prof. Charles Sprague Sargent; 'Handbook of Birds of the Western United States,' by Florence Merriam Bailey; 'A Sea-Turn, and Other Matters,' stories by Thomas Bailey Aldrich; 'Library Values' and 'Far and Near,' by John Burroughs; 'A Guide to the

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Use of Reference Books,' by Alice B. Kroeger; 'An Index of Portraits,' by Nina E. Browne; a supplementary Index to the *Atlantic Monthly* (1889-1901); 'A Study of Prose Fiction,' by Bliss Perry; 'Captain Craig,' poems by Edwin Arlington Robinson; 'A Pocketful of Posies,' rhymes for children, by Abbie Farwell Brown; 'Grimm Tales Made Gay,' by Guy Wetmore Carryl; 'A Primer of Right and Wrong,' by J. N. Larned; and 'Americans in Process: A Settlement Study,' for Boston, edited by Robert A. Woods.

Professor Lounsbury's 'Shakspere and Voltaire,' Bishop Potter's 'The Citizen and the Industrial Situation,' 'Human Nature and the Social Order,' by Prof. Charles Horton Cooley, and 'The Book of Joyous Children,' by James Whitcomb Riley, are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

A. Wessels Co. have in preparation Newton's 'Life of Captain John Brown'; 'The Story of Fish Life,' by W. P. Pycraft; and 'The Story of Euclid,' by W. B. Frankland.

George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia, will publish 'Some Early Printers and their Colophons,' by Joseph Spencer Kennard; 'Spain and her People,' by Jeremiah Zimmerman; and 'Wit and Humor of American Statesmen,' compiled by Frederick Reddale.

Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co., Boston, announce for September a new 'Atlas of the Geography and History of the Ancient World,' for school and college use, consisting of 33 maps, with a complete index, and bound in paper and in cloth.

During the present month, Duckworth & Co., 3 Henrietta Street, London, W. C., will issue, in a small and limited edition of eighty copies, a volume of 'Reproductions of Drawings by Old Masters,' in the Chatsworth collection of the Duke of Devonshire. Mostly unknown and unexplained examples will compose the seventy plates, to which Mr. S. Arthur Strong contributes a critical text. The facsimile reproductions will be put on Japanese vellum.

Ex-President Kruger (Krüger, as the Germans prefer to spell the name) has been dictating his Memoirs, and the competition to publish them has naturally been great on both sides of the water. The Munich house of J. F. Lehmann has secured the coveted monopoly for all countries, and expects to bring the work out in November simultaneously "in allen Kultursprachen."

The 'American Newspaper Annual' for 1902 of N. W. Ayer & Son, Philadelphia, makes a volume of nearly 1,500 pages, exclusive of advertisements. Fulness could hardly further go; in fact, the total of newspapers and periodicals recorded is but 152 more than last year, and the editor notices in his preface the continued tendency to consolidation even among journals of importance. The revised maps exhibit "practically every newspaper town contained in the Annual," and, with the statistics of population affixed in the text, make this work a gazetteer and atlas serviceable to others than advertisers. There are also classified tables of towns from 3,000 population to 50,000 and upwards, and the last Presidential vote is recorded for States and counties. This work has an established place at the front.

The Concise Standard Dictionary of Funk & Wagnalls brings some 28,000 words into small compass by confining the data to pronunciation and definition on the well-known lines of the greater work. Room is still found for a certain number of illustrations, as that of an automobile. The usual appendixes, including coinage and weights and measures, are given.

In our recent notice of the first number of the *Ancestor* we had it in mind to say that it contains very little relating to America; in fact, it is rather pleasant to see how completely the heraldry of America is ignored. There is, however, some reference to an interesting but little-known episode in the annals of Roxbury, Mass. There are extracts from Carr-Ellison's MSS., as printed in Appendix X. to Report XV. of the Historical Manuscripts Commission. They relate to the Lady Hesilrige (originally and now Hazlerigg), wife of Sir Robert Hesilrige, eighth Baronet of Noseley. He married, but when and where does not exactly appear, Sarah, daughter of the Rev. Nathaniel Walter of Roxbury, and was almost wholly disinherited by his father, Sir Arthur. His only son, Arthur, succeeded as ninth baronet, but was not ancestor of the present holder of the title.

Dr. Eugen Kretzer's 'Joseph Arthur Graf von Gobineau: Sein Leben und sein Werk' (Leipzig: Seemann) is in its main features a contribution to the already extensive and constantly increasing Nietzsche literature—a fact which invests it with peculiar interest at the present time. Although Nietzsche rarely refers to Gobineau, and always in a somewhat disparaging tone, the author of this biography argues that the German thinker, whose originality is so strongly emphasized by his admirers and adherents, was indebted to the Frenchman for the cardinal points of his philosophy. Whether he consciously borrowed his ideas from Gobineau or not, he was certainly anticipated by him in his views concerning the inequality of races, the gradual decadence of mankind, and the evolution of the "overman" as a redeemer. Both of them regarded the belief in a personal God as the chief hindrance to human progress, and Nietzsche interpreted the words of Christ, "The kingdom of God is within you," as implying that the Deity is otherwise non-existent. The most complete divine incarnation is the "overman," but his development demands absolute freedom from superhuman supremacy. Nietzsche's writings are full of contradictions, and he took pride in characterizing himself as a thinker whom no one need refute, since in this respect he is sufficient unto himself (*Er genügt sich dazu selber*).

A timely contribution to comparative philology and ethnology is Prof. Dr. Renward Brandstetter's pamphlet 'Tagalen und Madagassen' (Lucerne: Dolischal), which contains a careful study of the racial and linguistic peculiarities of the principal inhabitants of the Philippines and of Madagascar, both of which are scions or subdivisions of the widely diffused Malay stock. Treatises of this kind would naturally be read by imperial Americans, but how many such really give any thought to their subjects except as ministering to their pride of conquest or their pockets?

The celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the Germanic Museum at Nuremberg, fully described in a recent number of the *Nation*, was accompanied by the publication of a *Festschrift* entitled "Das Germanische Museum von 1852 bis 1902," prepared under the direction of Dr. Theodor Hampe, conservator and librarian of that institution, and issued by J. J. Weber in Berlin. It is a finely illustrated quarto of 150 pages, containing a full account of the origin and character of the Museum and its development till the present time.

The growth of morality in the brute creation through gregariousness is the subject of an article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of August 15 by M. Alfred Fouillée. It is hardly to be remarked for its novelty or its philosophy, but it usefully groups facts which are seldom viewed in the aggregate by the lord of creation. "Animal morality," concludes this writer, "is, like our own, a struggle against the struggle for existence; it is organization in society, devotion to a common cause. The social question has been raised by the animal world as by the human world," but has been solved by the former.

The July number of the *Library Journal* is wholly given up to reports of the Boston and Magnolia conferences (in June) of the American Library Association. Much stimulating reading is the result. Mr. George Watson Cole sums up and tabulates the gifts and bequests to American libraries in 1901-02 (July 1 to June 1). The money value of these benefactions, whether for running expenses or for buildings, was nearly twelve millions. Eight-tenths of the more than nine and a quarter millions for buildings proceeded from Andrew Carnegie, who found even in Massachusetts a foothold for his generosity to the extent of $200,000. To Michigan he gave $914,000, leaving only $500 to come from outside sources; to Kentucky $395,000, leaving $50,000 to other donors.

The monograph by Senator Hoar on Charles Allen of Worcester, a powerful and once distinguished jurist and statesman of Massachusetts, is the longest and not the least interesting paper in the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (vol. xiv., part 3), at their October meeting a year ago. Judge Allen's portrait is very impressively drawn. But here are also to be found Charles Francis Adams's "The Confederacy and the Transvaal," and Reminiscences of John Fiske by S. S. Green.

The United States Coast and Geodetic Survey has issued Special Publication No. 7, devoted to a discussion of the "Eastern Oblique Arc of the United States and Osculating Spheroid," by Charles A. Schott. The development of this arc is the result of the necessity for a main triangulation binding together the detached surveys of the harbors on the Atlantic Coast, and forming a base upon which all subordinate triangulation along that coast might be brought into accord. The triangulation upon which the oblique arc is based begins at Calais, Maine, on the St. Croix River, opposite the Canadian boundary, follows the trend of the Appalachian Mountains, reaches the Gulf Coast at Dauphin Island, near Mobile Bay, and terminates at New Orleans. The total length of the geodetic line is 1,623.2 statute miles, and in its course it traverses sixteen States. Near the middle of the arc the triangulation crosses the thirty-ninth parallel, and for some distance in Maryland and Virginia the same triangulation is employed in discussing the oblique arc as was used in the discussion of the transcontinental arc. The results of

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this survey are of far-reaching consequence, since for the first time a measurement oblique to the meridian has been executed on a grand scale, and valuable material has been furnished for a more exact determination of the figure of the earth. The oblique arc contains within itself all that is necessary for determining the dimensions of a spheroid which corresponds most nearly with the existing geoid within the area covered by the triangulation. Previous discussions of parts of this arc, taken in connection with the transcontinental arc of the thirty-ninth parallel, have led to the substitution of Clark's spheroid of reference for Bessel's, and the adoption for the whole country of geographic coördinates based on a uniform system. The volume fills 394 pages, and contains 38 illustrations, including portraits of Hassler and Bache. It is accompanied by two folded maps, one showing the area covered by the arc, the other the distribution of astronomic stations from Maine to Louisiana.

The Geodetic Survey of South Africa has published the second volume of its reports, which contains a "Rediscussion of Bailey's and Fourcade's Surveys and their Reduction to the System of the Geodetic Survey," by Sir David Gill. The survey of Capt. Bailey, which, beginning at the southern end of the arc of meridian executed by Sir Thomas Maclear, extended for a considerable distance along the southern coast of the Cape Colony, is of permanent value as a basis for future subsidiary triangulation and the cartography of the colony. Mr. Fourcade triangulated a large area of the Knysna district, from Krakeel River to Belvedere.

In a paper on Japan's commercial future, read by Mr. Henry Satoh, director of the Imperial Commercial Museum in Tokio, before the Japan Society of London, he points out fields of enterprise for the foreigner in Japan, especially in textiles and the manufacture on the soil of iron and steel. He shows that the larger part of Japan's industries, and notably keramics, are still individual and part of the household routine. Under the direction of the same author, the well-known writer of 'Agitated Japan,' the Imperial Department of State for Agriculture and Commerce sends forth a bound and indexed Abstract of Statistics for 1900, showing in most carefully digested tables the progress of agriculture, commerce, industries, fisheries, forest and mine products. The historian cannot afford to neglect this picture in figures of contemporaneous Japan, which shows modifications of diet (the potato taking the place of other vegetable food) and enlargement of flesh food (with the corresponding multiplication of cattle and increase of pasturage), the decrease of tea-plant acreage, and the increase of mulberry-tree, the astonishing development of native goods manufactured for export, etc. Formosan statistics are not included. Evidently this little publication No. 1 is to be a serial.

Commercial education in Germany is one of the most important subjects treated in the Consular Reports for August. Instruction is now thoroughly organized in five distinct grades, from the primary commercial schools to the commercial universities of Leipzig and Cologne. Many of the primary schools have been founded and are maintained by the chambers of commerce, which, in nearly every city of the empire, are actively engaged in promoting commercial education. An object-lesson as to the value of this training is given by our consul at Hong Kong, who tells of the great success of two young Americans in selling goods of American manufacture in China, owing largely to the fact that they prepared themselves for their trip by learning to speak the Chinese language. The great decrease in the importation of alcohols into the Congo Free State is a hopeful sign, while progress in an Asiatic state is shown by a translation of the recent Siamese copyright law. The fifteenth section provides that one copy of every copyrighted work shall be presented "to the King's library, one copy to the Vajirayana library, and one copy to the ecclesiastical library." Several of the reports refer to the production of sugar in different parts of the world, and, though there has been a decrease of 17 per cent. in this year's sowings of beet sugar in Europe, "it is expected," writes our consul at Bremen, "that the visible supply of sugar in the world on August 31, 1903, will continue to show an enormously overstocked market."

The Damascus-Mecca railway, officially styled the Hedjaz or Pilgrim line, is one of the latest and most interesting projects for the development of the Levantine countries. It is worthy also of being ranked among the great enterprises of the day, as it is to run for 1,100 miles through a waterless desert, peopled by Bedouins hostile to the scheme. Nearly two million dollars has been raised by subscription from Moslems, and work was commenced some fifteen months ago from the terminus of the existing Hauran Railway, sixty-three miles from Damascus. Turkish soldiers and foreigners, mostly Italians, have been employed, and it was hoped that the line would be completed as far as Ain Zerka, 125 miles from Damascus, on August 29, the anniversary of the Sultan's accession. The chief engineer is a German, who has under him some Turkish officers from the corps of engineers. The material comes from Belgium, with the exception of some machinery and of the wooden ties, which are supplied gratis by the vilayets of Aidin and Salonika from their forests.

—Musical periodicals are not, as a rule, profitable unless they cater to the vanity of singers and players. The majority of professional musicians are not great readers even of the literature bearing on their art—which is one reason why they belong to the majority—and the general public seems to be contented with what it gets in the columns of the periodical press. This is true in Germany as well as in other countries; in fact, the editors of German musical periodicals seem to be particularly hampered by the lack of funds. A good deal of attention was therefore aroused last year by the appearance in Berlin of a new fortnightly, in magazine form, *Die Musik* (New York: Breitkopf & Härtel), which has shown an enterprising spirit quite unusual in its sphere. A notable instance is the recent "Bayreuth Heft," comprising the issues twenty and twenty-one. Its twenty articles (144 pages), mostly by well-known specialists, contain a surprising number of new details regarding a subject on which there has been a superabundance of writing for more than half a century. There are also numerous illustrations—portraits, facsimiles of Wagner letters and manuscripts, pictures of the houses in which Wagner lived, Bayreuth Nibelung scenery and singers, and the music of a short waltz which Wagner composed (with a humorous dedication) in Zürich (probably in 1857), and which is here printed for the first time. It has only thirty-two bars, and will not eclipse Johann Strauss.

—The most valuable new document in the "Bayreuth Heft" is the first sketch of the "Meistersinger." It is dated July 16, 1845, and was therefore written at the same time that "Lohengrin" was planned, and seventeen years before its completion as a dramatic poem. It takes up ten pages of type, and contains all the scenes of the completed poetic drama except that between Eva and Hans Sachs in Act II. One cannot but marvel at the dramatic vividness with which the details of the whole comedy are indicated in this preliminary prose sketch, while at the same time the finished poem compares with it as an oil painting with its pencil sketch. A more interesting and instructive glimpse into the workshop of genius has never been afforded, Wilhelm Tappert, who is always making new discoveries, has an article showing that there are not two, as commonly supposed, but three different endings for "Tannhäuser" made at various times by Wagner. Hausegger discourses on Rousseau and Wagner, and Egidi reports some conversations on the subject of Wagnerism which he had with Nietzsche, whose rarely more than semi-sane utterances on diverse topics have received altogether too much attention in Germany. Of greater interest are the sixteen pages devoted to extracts from the letters of Esser relating to Wagner and his works. Esser was a Viennese composer and conductor who was commissioned by the publisher, Schott, to make arrangements for piano of Wagner's later operas. How well he was qualified for this task may be inferred from his reference to the second act of "Siegfried" (which pleases even the boxholders of our Metropolitan Opera-house) as music "in which a melody occurs only sporadically," and most of which is "repulsively tiresome." In one of his letters to Schott he expresses his surprise that that publisher should be willing to risk his money in printing the scores of the Nibelung operas.

—Prince Nicholas Galitzin, Keeper of the Archives in the Foreign Office, Moscow, in the second section of the *Annales Internationales d'Histoire*, Congress of Paris, 1900 (Paris: Armand Colin), deals with "The Question of the Emancipation of the Serfs under the Empress Catharine II." He asserts that this Empress was the first to raise the issue of liberating the serfs (but Maxim Kovalevsky, in a note, not only denies that Catherine had that honor, but calls attention to the fact that she imposed serfage in the South of Russia, which had hitherto been free from it); and gives a brief narrative of the rise and progress of that institution. Until her accession to the throne, Catharine II. was imbued with the ideas of Montesquieu, Rousseau, Voltaire, and the French Encyclopædists, and her first efforts were in the direction of complete emancipation; but she ended by doing nothing to ameliorate the condition of the serfs, because she did not know where to begin in practice, and

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her attempts to apply her theories merely served to set all classes in an uproar, and to bring about some serious open revolts.

—More curious and interesting, in the same volume, is the article by M. Vinavert, a lawyer of St. Petersburg, on "French Influence upon Russian Codification under Nicholas I." The *Svod*, or systematic code of laws in Russia, in fifteen volumes, was prepared under the direction of Speransky, at the command of Nicholas I. Speransky had been the greatest statesman under Alexander I., admired everything French, and fairly adored Napoleon I., especially after the interview at Erfurt between the two Emperors, at which he was present. In 1810 Speransky elaborated a civil code which was, in great part, copied from the Code Napoléon. As the war of invasion of 1812 approached, his French sympathies—in particular this civil code—raised a tremendous storm against him, and in 1812 he was banished to a remote province and subjected to the strict surveillance of the police. In 1821 he was allowed to return to St. Petersburg, and appointed a member of the Council of State. When a section of his Majesty's Chancellery was formed, in 1825, to edit the Code, Speransky was not placed at the head of it, but the work fell into his hands, and his chief was warned by the Emperor that he would be held responsible for any actions in the line of those committed by Speransky in 1810—*i. e.*, for any copying from the French code; Russians being persuaded that they possessed, of native origin, everything requisite. But Mr. Vinavert has cleverly analyzed the Code prepared under these conditions, and finds that Speransky got his own way, after all, using half a dozen different devices to conceal his borrowings. Meanwhile, in his Introduction, Speransky asserted that "the articles of the code were set forth without the slightest change, in the very words employed by the ukases on which they were based"; and that "all our wealth in this line belongs to us by right, was acquired by us, and contained nothing borrowed." Mr. Vinavert explains, in detail, several of Speransky's disingenuous and baffling methods of procedure, and shows how, in many cases, the law, which was clear in the Code Napoléon or in Pothier, has been rendered obscure by the manner in which the Russian editors handled it. Mr. Vinavert's labors on this subject are very instructive and important.

—Prof. Ernest W. Clement is the Atlas supporting the little world of the Asiatic Society of Japan in the latest publication of its Transactions. Volume xxx., part i., contains but two papers, both by this author, one on "Japanese Calendars" and the other on "A Chinese Refugee of the Seventeenth Century." In more senses than one, the Japanese have plenty of time. They have solar, lunar, Japanese, Chinese, and Occidental time, two national calendars, and several chronological year periods or era-systems. Of the two vernacular calendars, one called Ki-gen (history-beginning) starts in the mythology of 660 B. C., and the other, Meiji (enlightened rule), began after the accession of the present Emperor Mutsuhito. The country people and most of the Buddhists still observe the old style of reckoning based on the twelve signs of the Chinese zodiac and the sexagenary circle, or period of sixty years. This "cycle of Cathay," in all its divisions and subdivisions, rests upon, or at least receives its terminology from, the ancient philosophy of China. The old Japanese hour was one hundred and twenty minutes long, and the order of numbering was not what to us is the logical order, one, two, three, etc., but followed a style of computation based upon the multiples of nine (1x9=9, 2x9=18, 3x9=27, 4x9=36, 5x9=45, 6x9=54), and in each case the tail figure of the product was chosen as the name of the hour (9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4). In announcing time by the bell, three preliminary strokes were always struck, in order to warn people that the hour was about to be sounded; hence, to avoid confusion, the numbers, 1, 2, 3, were not used. In most old Japanese clocks there was but one hand or pointer, which stood still while the dial went around it. Despite watches and modern clocks, it will probably take the average Japanese, of the thirty-five millions in the empire, several generations to get accustomed to such trifles as "minutes" and "seconds"—common words for which did not exist in the old vernacular, at a time when "punctuality was the thief of time." The full calendar for 1902 and the list of year periods from B. C. 660 to the present Meiji, with much interesting folk-lore and illustrations of the Zodiacal animals, are given. To his previous studies of the Chinese refugee scholars who fled to Japan on the fall of the Ming Dynasty, causing a renascence of learning something like that of the Greek scholars in Europe from Constantinople, Professor Clement adds another study of one who was a priest, a physician, and an engineer. The Transactions are to be had at the Librarian's Office, 56 Tsukiji, Tokio.

—The yearly consumption of morphine, cocaine, ether, and similar drugs grows out of proportion to the increase of population and to the legitimate demands of medicine. The vice of addiction to narcotics accounts for this. Its immediate consequences are less obvious than those of alcoholic intoxication, but have quite as disastrous ultimate effects, and their very elusiveness makes the slavery more inexorable. We may not discuss here its probable causes, and can only insist that the use of narcotic drugs is a fascinating peril, whose gravity increases with its charm, and from which escape by self-help is practically impossible. 'Morphinism, and Narcomanias from Other Drugs' (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders & Co.) is the somewhat inexact title of Dr. T. D. Crothers's hospital and other experience, and his deductions therefrom, in book form. His warnings and his advice are good, especially as applied to the more mischievous poisons, and his general deductions may be accepted with confidence. But we can hardly commend this as a model book. There are lapses in construction, and especially there is frequent failure to give exact references when authorities are cited. The latter is apologized for in a general way in the preface, but the deficiency is none the less tantalizing when the reader wishes to consult the originals. Should the precise data have been lost, it would be quite worth while to recover them, as might easily be done through the superb Surgeon-General's Library and Catalogue. The following case is gravely made a part of the record (p. 303): "Some very curious instances of coffee intoxication have been reported. One, of a prominent general in a noted battle in the civil war: after drinking several cups of coffee he appeared on the front of the line, exposing himself with great recklessness, shouting and waving his hat as if in a delirium, giving orders, and swearing in the most extraordinary manner. He was supposed to be intoxicated. Afterwards it was found that he had used nothing but coffee."

PAULSEN'S KANT.

Immanuel Kant: His Life and Doctrine. By Friedrich Paulsen. Translated from the Revised German Edition by J. E. Creighton and Albert Lefevre. With a Portrait. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. 8vo, pp. xix, 419.

Of the three "parts of the soul," as they used to be called, Sensibility, Energy, and Thought, Kant was decidedly deficient in the first and by no means a hero in the second. That he was genuinely great in thought would seem to be overwhelmingly proved by Vaihinger, from the manner in which he has commanded the attention of all subsequent thinkers. Yet very many of these thinkers, if not most of them, would hold Kant to have been wrong in almost every one of his arguments. Let us reëxamine his capacities in sensibility, energy, and thought.

As for sensibility, we call to mind a single passage in Kant's writings as having been admired æsthetically. It is the well-known parallel between the starry heavens above and the moral law within. That genuine eloquence must be attributed to this passage is sufficiently attested by the general admiration it has excited, for it clothes an ethical doctrine which, nakedly presented, would be repugnant to the majority of admirers of the passage. This seems to be the one passage in all Kant's writings that can really be called fine. Professor Paulsen is of opinion that Kant might have become one of the great writers of Germany. He gives sundry reasons for thinking so—such as that Kant's style is marked by great emphasis, that he has a goodly stock of fine phrases and no little ingenuity in bringing them in, and that his "waggishness" is strongly marked. There is no reason to suppose that Kant might not have made a good writer, like anybody else, had he been trained under a good master. Any exaggeration of tone would have been repressed, his elegant extracts dismissed, and his wit subjected to good taste. A good writer, of course; but whether a great writer, or not, is one of those questions of which Kant himself would have said that they transcend the limits of possible experience. Measuring his sensibility by known facts, we find that his style, though it has qualities which excite the gratitude of a student who many times rereads and deeply ponders every section, is devoid of any other grace than that of keeping to the point—is not even always grammatical. Kant never contemplated matrimony, and apparently was never in love. He never had an unreasonable attachment. Though for years he was a distinguished lecturer on physical geography, he was never moved to go to look upon a mountain, never even tramped to the neighboring sea, never saw other town than his own little East Prussian capital. In sensibility, then, Kant must be rated as below the average.

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Energy is of two kinds; that which reacts upon the outer world, and that which inhibits one's own impulses. We must be careful not to mistake a deficiency of either kind for an excess of the other. Kant was never moved to any enterprising action, nor even to making any troublesome observations. On the occasion of his being reprimanded for his religious philosophy by minister and king, the little fellow meekly promised to say no more upon the subject. It is true that he was seventy years of age; but then he was a bachelor, without dependents, and by far the most illustrious person in Germany, not even perhaps excepting Goethe. He declares, in a well-known paper, that he has read Swedenborg's 'Arcana Cælestia.' If he really did that, it was the most heroic effort of his life. He would have been better employed in reading Hume's 'Essays' or 'Treatise on Human Nature,' which concerned him more than any other books in the world; but Paulsen is quite right in saying that he never did read Hume in the sense of apprehending his meaning. It must be granted that Hume is an enigmatical writer. His so-called "easy" writing makes hard reading enough. It allows the superficial student to read into it ideas that the author never intended to express, especially the student unacquainted with what was going on in the English world of letters of the period. But take the ordinary traditional logic. A schoolboy can master that. Yet Kant's pamphlet on the 'Falsche Spitzfindigkeit' is devoted to setting forth as a novel discovery of Kant's own the very doctrine of the reduction of syllogism taught in every book of traditional logic. The only real novelties it contains are two or three absurd blunders. Kant probably did read Baumgarten's 'Metaphysica'; but one must doubt mightily whether he ever really read any other book of philosophy.

These things are most significant. In self-control Kant appears to be a prodigy. A man more systematic than he would not be reckoned among the sane. When, during his afternoon constitutional, he reached a certain corner, the good people of Königsberg would pull out their watches, not to see whether Herr Professor Doctor Kant was on time, but to see whether their watches were going right. His more important books were put together, as he expressed it, architectonically. That is, just as architects, until recently, used to insist upon designing buildings upon an arbitrary plan supposed to have certain merits, but not determined by the purposes which the buildings were to subserve; just so, Kant would enslave himself to an elaborate system of divisions and subdivisions—*Hauptttheile, Theile, Abtheilungen, Bücher, Hauptstücke, Abschnitte*, and *Paragraphen*—laid down beforehand, not arising from the peculiar character of his theme, but supposed to be dictated *à priori* by reason and to be derived from the idea of pure reason. Such method either bespeaks extraordinary self-control or a singular defect of *élan*. Several circumstances besides Kant's apparent inability to read a work on philosophy somewhat incline us to the latter hypothesis.

At any rate, it was exclusively in the way of thought that Kant can be deemed great, if he was great at all. There are different kinds of thought: there is mathematical thought, that works by diagrams; there is the thought which, from observing a fragment, divines a whole; and there is logical analysis. Kant was certainly not a mathematician. In scientific theorizing, however, he was decidedly strong. He is accounted by astronomers the author of the Nebular Hypothesis. In his younger days, he was a physicist; and he always remained a physicist who had taken up philosophy (naturally, less strikingly so as his powers declined), contrasting in this regard with Fichte, Schelling, Hegel, and Schleiermacher, not to speak of Baader, Günther, etc., who were all theological students, and as strongly with Jacobi, Fries, Krause, etc., who came to philosophy by the route of theology; and even, more or less, with Schopenhauer, Herbart, Beneke, and all the others before Fechner and Lotze, who, at any rate, breathe rather the atmosphere of the seminary than that of the laboratory. Every scientific reader feels the philosopher of Königsberg to be of his kindred.

When we think of the stupendous amount of close study which intellectual men of every stripe have bestowed upon Kant, and when we ask ourselves, What is it, then, which has attracted all this attention? We are led to answer, it was his power of constructing a theory, which is the kind of intellectual feat that marks the man of science—the Young, the Faraday, the Darwin. We shall not, of course, be misunderstood as saying that constructing theories made any of them the great men that they were, any more than it did Kant. As a scientific man beneath the skin, Kant is comparatively free from the besetting fallacy of the philosophers, which may be described, without exaggeration, as consisting in producing arguments to prove a micron, at most, and in concluding a light-year, at least. Kant, perceiving in some measure this universal fault of the philosophers, was naturally led to his evident ambition to be the arbiter of philosophical disputes. But he could have exercised this office only in the weak manner of the Eclectics, allowing so much weight to this consideration and so much to another diametrically opposed to it, if he had not fortunately been gifted with a great strength in logical analysis, that enabled him at once to do full justice to the arguments and tendencies of both sides, and to make both contributory to a third unitary conception. Yet even his logical analysis would not have sufficed, if it had not been for a supereminent share in a characteristic that may be remarked in all the more powerful scientific intellects, the power of making use even of conceptions that resisted his logical analysis, and of drawing from them nearly the same conclusions as any clear mind would have done that had analyzed them. We cannot, in a few words, make our meaning very clear; but one might say that an ordinary intelligent mind has an upper layer of clear thought, underlaid by muddled ideas; while in Kant's mind there appears to be a pure solution down into those depths where daylight hardly penetrates. He thinks pretty correctly even when he does not think distinctly.

The volume under consideration contains a careful account of Kant's place in history, of his life and character, and of his philosophy, by one of the most accomplished and popular of the German philosophers of to-day. It is not a suitable guide for a beginner in Kant. The 'Critic of the Pure Reason' is, perhaps, as wholesome a book as a student of force could find with which to begin the study of philosophy. But the only accompaniment to it that is advisable at first is a textual comment. Such books as Paulsen's are best left for later perusal. We need not say that the student must not allow himself to imagine that in going through the 'Critic' for the first time without preparation he can understand Kant entirely, far less duly estimate him, until he has read the discussions which led up to the 'Critic.' Deeper students will find this volume interesting and convenient. It leaves hardly any question of metaphysics untouched.

We have said that it is drawn up with care. We will now give two specimens of its inevitable inaccuracies. In summing up Kant's historical position, Paulsen says that to have cleared the ground and pointed the way to a poetic naturalistic pantheism as the fundamental form of the conception of the world, is the imperishable service of Kant. This not only forgets that Lessing introduced "poetic naturalistic pantheism" the year before the 'Critic' appeared, and that its propagator, Goethe, was uninfluenced by Kant, but conveys the idea that Kant's importance is exclusively theological and poetical; and accordingly, in the summary of his philosophy, his scientific writings are left unmentioned, and, throughout, his relations to theology are made infinitely more important than his relations to what is generally called science. But Kant, as we have said, was, on the contrary, mainly a man of science—not oblivious of aspirations towards God, freedom, and immortality, but yet dwelling in the realm of experience; and his theory of cognition—its general design, at least, and some of its corner-stones—still stands, as far as scientific thought is concerned, firmly established. Under these circumstances, and since he himself was not a pantheist, it is unjust to sum him up as a forerunner of what he condemned.

The following is an example of another kind of inaccuracy. On p. 147 we read:

"How synthetic judgments *à posteriori* can have actual validity seemed to him to be no problem at all. If he had raised the question, it would have shattered the whole structure of the 'Critique.' He would have been forced to reply that there can be no such judgments; synthetic judgments *à posteriori* are a *contradictio in adjecto*."

Compare this with the following from page 8 of the 'Critic of the Pure Reason':

"In synthetical judgments, I must have, in addition to the concept of the subject, A, something else, X, upon which thought may react, in order to cognize a predicate, B, as belonging to A, although not a part of it. In empirical, or experimental, judgments there is no difficulty in fulfilling this condition. The X is merely the complete experience of the object of the concept A, which is but a part of that experience. [Having expanded this remark very clearly, he concludes]: Experience, then, is that X which extends beyond the concept A, and upon which the possibility of the synthesis of the predicate B with the concept A is founded."

We thus find that Kant does consider the very problem which Professor Paulsen says he does not consider. He does not, indeed, consider it in all its branches, but he does so quite sufficiently to show that his answer, had it been more complete, would have borne not the slightest resemblance to the absurdity which Professor Paulsen says he would have been drawn

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ish Government had assumed this responsibility, it went to war with the Boers, and impaired the value of its consols one-fifth. It owes the depositors in the savings banks really more than their investments amount to, and in that department of the finances is probably insolvent, judged by the standard of private commercial morality. Doubtless consols will now rise; but what would have happened if the issue of the war had been different? What will happen if a general European war breaks out?

The author of this book has collected many facts concerning building associations, insurance, and the various methods of saving and of caring for savings. His accounts, however, are not sufficiently complete to be very satisfactory, and he does not succeed in getting a comprehensive grasp of his subject. But his aim is laudable, and this essay may lead to others of a more substantial character.

The Ethical Treatises of Berachya, Son of Rabbi Natronai Ha-nakdan; Being the Compendium and the Masref, now edited for the first time with an English translation, etc., by Hermann Gollancz, M.A., D.Lit. London: David Nutt. 1902. Pp. lvi, 362, 154.

The Improvement of the Moral Qualities. An Ethical Treatise of the Eleventh Century by Solomon Ibn Gabirol, printed from an unique Arabic MS., together with a Translation and an Essay. By Stephen S. Wise, Ph.D. Columbia University Press. 1901. Pp. 120, 47.

The awakening of the East is affecting not the living only but the dead as well. Books supposedly laid to their rest long ago, over whose dusty graves the drums and tramplings of many conquests have passed, are being brought forth into a new life as immortal (through the kindly art of the printer) as any sublunar life may be. Not so many years ago such a resurrection would have seemed a pious dream, but the utterly impossible is steadily coming to pass, and these sheeted dead, often strangely and uncomfortably enough, are beginning to move in twentieth-century life. For the Muslim East its mediæval scholars and sages, so awakened, still have kinship of aspiration and habit of mind; but in Europe, for all our rigors of historical science and *pietas* towards the founders and transmitters of our thought, there is almost a Hamitic element in the exposure of the nakedness which oblivious time itself had perhaps more wisely veiled. The soaring geniused few who, by the universal within them, were kin to all the ages, may have nothing to fear; but the little men who clung and groped around them, who understood the masters so little and were yet so confident, so definite, and so particular—for them there is great pity in this awakening.

Such dismay and sore puzzlement would surely have befallen Berachya if he, like his books, had come to life again in our time. A worthy man, come of a family of Massoretic scribes and probably in youth plying that art himself, he—so Dr. Gollancz has with singular skill and acuteness reconstructed his life—must have turned early to the science of the time and translated a 'Lapidarium' of most miscellaneous stone-lore and the 'Questiones Naturales' of Adelard of Bath—that queer dialogue between an uncle and a nephew on the respective values of eastern and western methods; both probably through the French. Later, it would seem, he took up ethical philosophy as accessible to him in Hebrew, French, and Latin. Arabic he plainly did not know; the new life which was to come from it through the families of Tibbonids and Kimhids, was only just beginning. Last of all, he, like so many of his time, wrote fables. These he managed so to dress in easy Scriptural Hebrew, barbed with Biblical allusion, that they have remained, and with them his own name, very much alive to the present time. Practically, up till now, Berachya has been Berachya of the fables. Round them has centred the burning question of his place and date. He himself has been only a name, or rather several names, and some witty Hebrew fox stories. Mr. Joseph Jacobs, after his wont, had a fantastic hypothesis that he was a certain "Benedictus le puncteur," a Jew of Oxford who was mulcted by Richard I. towards his ransom. But this hypothesis was smitten sorely by both Neubauer and Steinschneider, and now Dr. Gollancz has very fairly demonstrated that Berachya was really of Languedoc, one of the brilliant circle gathered in the twelfth century at Lunel round the Jewish Mæcenas Meshullam.

This he has done by bringing into court and publishing the present ethical treatises. For themselves, it must be confessed that these are of a phenomenal dulness. They are a rehash of sections from the great work of Saadya, the Gaon—from whom, indeed, all Jewish ethics dates and comes—in part straight, in part mingled with matter from Ibn Ezra, Bahya and Ibn Gabirol. All these he knew in the older Hebrew translations only; to the broader Arabic culture he had no access. And thus, as a link in the chain of ethics, he is frankly valueless. His line ends with him. The intellectual energy which sprang from Ibn Gabirol's 'Fons Vitæ' did not reach him, though it reached and affected Europe down to the Renaissance; he appears even to have known nothing of Halevi or Maimonides. In ethics his face was set backwards into that past which is so unintelligible to us; only by the art of his beast fables can he have part with modern men. We may therefore rejoice at Dr. Gaster's promise of an edition of them. We shall learn from it what relation, if any, Berachya had to Marie de France, and what part he played in the whole Isopet development.

In Dr. Gollancz's own work only one point seems open to criticism. That is the *obiter dictum* that the old translation, so long ascribed to Berachya himself, of Saadya's 'Amanat' was made in the East. When we consider that learned Oriental Jews wrote regularly in Arabic and that the ordinary language of the masses of Oriental Jews was Arabic, it is hardly explicable how such a translation could have there been called for. In Spain and Italy the case was different. There a Hebrew version would be required as soon as the book was known.

With Ibn Gabirol the matter stands otherwise. He would be no uneasy ghost in modern life. If his Hebrew poems, and especially the "Kether Malkuth," give him part in the devotions of the synagogue, his 'Fons Vitæ'—the authorship of which was so long ascribed to a shadowy *Doppelgänger*, Avicebron—connects with the Muslim neo-Platonic school, and puts him in the great line of philosophical development that runs from Plato and Aristotle to our day. His influence was heavy on Duns Scotus and Giordano Bruno, and from them has passed on. But the present ethical treatise gives little suggestion of his weight as a thinker. In spite of independent flashes, it is of the old type, and evidently formed part of his more public writings as distinguished from the esoteric tractates in which his real opinions were given out. Dr. Wise does not seem to have appreciated this economy of teaching which characterized all Arabic philosophy, nor to have divided sharply enough this book from the 'Fons Vitæ.' The two have little in common; they are intended for quite different audiences. As to details, it is a pity that the Arabic text—the first edition of the original, though there have been many of the Hebrew translation—should have suffered so in printing. The diacritical points have been too often broken away, and the text would be hard to read if its vocabulary were not of a well-worn monotony. Dr. Wise, too, might have paid more attention to the vowels; they seem sometimes to be scattered in at random. Further, his translations, especially of the verses, might often be improved. Ibn Gabirol, whether sincere or insincere, was worthy of more care. Finally, the remark on the *Todtschweigen* of Ibn Gabirol will hardly hold. Berachya, though of the steadiest orthodoxy, quotes him repeatedly.

A History of Greece to the Death of Alexander. By J. B. Bury. Macmillan. One volume. 1900. Library edition; two volumes. 1902.

In the preface to his first edition, the author intimates that the work is intended not only for the general reader, but also for use as a text-book in universities and schools. He writes under the conviction that those histories which are capable of enlisting the interest of mature readers are best also for informing younger students. This perhaps would be a sound view, if it were only practical; but, at least in America, secondary teachers universally demand short, simple books; and even college instructors say that they find works of the compass of Holm and Bury too detailed for use as texts. Another opinion of the author, as to the superior usefulness of a one-volume history, must have been modified somewhat by experience, else we should not now have his far more attractive "library edition" in two volumes. The new edition omits the cuts, but retains the maps and plans. Of the few changes in the text, the most important is that which notices the progress of the Cretan excavations. "The other chief additions are a fuller account of the diplomatic transactions between the peace of Nicias and the first battle of Mantinea, a short biographical notice of Herodotus, and a clearer statement regarding the character of Thucydides as an historian." It is difficult to understand why the author ended with the death of Alexander; the broad view of Greek history now prevalent ought to have influenced him to continue the work to the beginning of the period covered by his 'Later Roman Empire.'

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Mr. Bury is favorably known to classical scholars by his edition of Pindar, and to students of modern history as the editor of the "Foreign Statesmen" series. His 'History of the Later Roman Empire' is a valuable contribution to our knowledge of the neglected period which it treats, and his 'Student's Roman Empire,' though scarcely more than a compilation, has served a good purpose in bringing to the English reader the views of Mommsen as to the early imperial Constitution. The breadth of the field in which Mr. Bury works, however, prevents him from being a specialist in anything. It is true that he brings to the preparation of the present history not only his long experience as a writer and editor, but also the broad, sympathetic knowledge of Grecian literature rarely found except in the professor of Greek, and a good acquaintance with the best modern authorities in his field. Yet he is wanting in that mastery of the material which distinguishes Busolt, Holm, and others who have devoted their lives to this one subject. In everything excepting literary form and expression he lacks originality. In his treatment of Athens the influence of Wilamowitz-Möllendorff appears on nearly every page, but the greater part of his work seems to be drawn from Busolt's exhaustive history. He goes so far as to take credit for suggestions offered years ago by Busolt. For instance, in volume ii., p. 474, the suggestion as to the original application of *pentacosiomedimni* was made in 1891 by Busolt (Philol, l, p. 396), and repeated in his history (ii., p. 182, n. 3). In such cases Mr. Bury's memory is doubtless at fault. It is a question, on the other hand, whether the kind of work he does is just toward the original investigators. After the Germans, with infinite toil, have advanced historical science in a given field, is it fair that an English writer, competent to handle every subject in the ancient or modern world with equal brilliancy and success, should leisurely reap the fruit of all their labor? In the instance before us, it is highly probable that, had the works of Busolt and Wilamowitz-Möllendorff been translated into English, Mr. Bury would never have attempted a history of Greece. But the fault is not his alone; the custom of preying upon German scholarship is so general that we have become hardened to the injustice of it.

Mr. Bury's work has enabled the English reader to think the thoughts of the most advanced German specialists in the field of Grecian history. For instance, he does ample justice to the merits of Herodotus; he calls attention to the partisan attitude of Thucydides toward the leaders of the Athenian democracy; and he appreciates the part taken by Themistocles in the making of Athens. Had he followed the principles of historical inquiry more strictly, he might even have acquitted the great Athenian statesman of the charge of bribery, as Eduard Meyer has done. Following Köhler, Mr. Bury dares in one case to prefer the authority of Aristotle ('Constitution of Athens') to that of Thucydides. To scholars of like mind with Mr. Evelyn Abbott, this judgment will doubtless appear sacrilegious. These conservatives will find our author heretical on so many other subjects that we may expect to see them putting their ban upon his work and denouncing him as no true historian of Greece.

In the early part of the work Mr. Bury shows little evidence of dependence on German scholarship, but leans rather upon those English archæologists who are directly interested in the Cretan excavations. An archæologist, it is to be noted, is as a rule an untrustworthy historian. In the historical interpretation of his "finds" he indulges in the most fanciful speculations; two or three facts furnish him with material for a whole chapter of "history." Taking his clue from the English archæologists, Mr. Bury attempts to follow in minute detail the fortunes of the Pelasgians, Achæans, and many other races through the third and second millennia B. C. Nearly all that he says about primitive Greece might possibly be true; it is easy, however, to imagine a hundred other ways in which the movements and the development of the primitive races might have taken place. Had these speculations appeared in a paper rather than been prefixed to a history, whatever value they may have would not thereby have been diminished, and the public could more quietly await the judgment of the sober historian as to the bearings of the recent discoveries.

The weakness of this first chapter is not confined to the interpretation of archæological material, but in various respects the treatment is unscientific. The founders of cities whom we have long regarded as legendary, Mr. Bury considers historical. In his view, Ilios was named after "King Ilos, who perhaps was its founder." Similarly, he supposes that whenever two cities of Greece are found with the same name, one must be a colony of the other. The truth is, that identity of name does not of itself prove connection of any kind. His reasoning, too, from later to earlier conditions is often faulty. "The Javones," he says, "were a people who had settled on the coasts of Argolis and Attica, but there the name fell out of use, and perhaps passed out of memory, until on Asiatic soil it attained celebrity." There is in fact no historical hint that those early people of Argolis and Attica called themselves Javones—it is nothing more than a possibility. But history is something more than a chain of possibilities; and if we are to have a history of early Greece, it must be based on a more scientific method than is to be found in the present work.

As a whole, Mr. Bury's history answers to a need which could have been better supplied by the translation of certain German works into English, but this limited value can hardly be more than transient.

The Alps in 1864: A Private Journal by A. W. Moore, edited by Alex. B. W. Kennedy, F.R.S. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1902. 8vo.

Moore's Journal has long been one of the most sought of the rarities of Alpine literature. It was written for the author's own amusement, privately printed for the pleasure of his friends, and is now offered to the public, fifteen years after Moore's death. Moore was a remarkable man, about whom the world knew nothing. For many years he was the soul of the India Office, where he came to occupy a high position. He was Lord Randolph Churchill's confidential assistant. He was a silent official who exercised great influence over his chiefs. All who knew his work agreed that he was the beau-ideal of a civil servant. He died of overwork. This book is his only monument, except the warm remembrances of his friends. The Alpine Club was largely made by him. He was its organizing mind at a critical period. Moore took part, and a very important part, in many of the first ascents described in Whymper's 'Scrambles.' Whymper described them picturesquely; Moore's descriptions are written with all the accuracy and clearness of an official dispatch. If there are books that can be described as Alpine classics, Moore's book should stand high, perhaps at the head of the list. It would be impossible to write such a book on the Alps now. The freshness is gone from the climbers' hearts; the Alps have become *vieux jeu*. Hence the possible permanent value of this book. It may live long after those who knew the author and admired or loved him have all passed away.

The new edition is well printed, carefully edited, and beautifully illustrated with choice heliogravure reproductions of photographs by the editor and other well-known Alpine specialists.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, F. P. In Cupid's Court. Evanston (Ill.): William S. Lord.
Benton, C. E. As Seen from the Ranks. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Black, B. N. Primer. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Beylié, L. de. L'Habitation Byzantine. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
"Chauffeur." Two Thousand Miles on an Automobile. *Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.* $2.
Chesterton, G. K. The Defendant. London: R. Brimley Johnson; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.
Clark, Kate U. Up the Witch Brook Road. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Conrad, Joseph. Typhoon. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Corelli, Marie. "Temporal Power." Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Craddock, C. E. The Champion. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Crane, Elizabeth G. The Imperial Republic. The Grafton Press.
Decennial Publications of the University of Chicago: (1) Starr, Frederick. *Physical Characters of* Indians of Southern Mexico; (2) Klenze, Camillo von. The Treatment of Nature in the Works of Nikolaus Lenau. Chicago: The University Press.
Glasgow, Ellen. The Voice of the People. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Hall, J. L. Judith, Phœnix, and Other Anglo-Saxon Poems. Silver, Burdett & Co. 75 cents.
Hall, Ruth. A Downrenter's Son. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Higgins, Elizabeth. Out of the West. Harpers. $1.50.
Industrial Conciliation: Report of the Proceedings of the Conference Held under the Auspices of the National Civic Federation. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Joyce, J. A. Brickbats and Bouquets. F. Tennyson Neely.
Kauffman, R. W. The Things that are Cæsar's. D. Appleton & Co.
Lawton, W. C. Introduction to the Study of American Literature. Globe School Book Co. $1.
Matthews, Brander. Aspects of Fiction. New ed. Scribners. $1.25.
Merriman, H. S. The Vultures. Harpers. $1.50.
Metcalfe, Cranstoun. Fame for a Woman. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Molina, Julia W. Mingled Sweets and Bitters. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Naylor, J. B. In the Days of St. Clair. The Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.50.
Patterson, Ada, and Bateman, Victory. By the Stage Door. The Grafton Press. $1.50.
Pfungst, Arthur. A German Buddhist. London: Luzac & Co. 2s.
Pidgin, C. F. The Climax. Boston: C. M. Clark Pub. Co.
Price, Lillian L. Wandering Heroes. Silver, Burdett & Co. 50 cents.
Riley, I. W. The Founder of Mormonism. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Sabin, E. L. The Magic Mashie, and Other Golfish Stories. A. Wessels Co. $1.
Sadler, M. E. Special Reports on Educational Subjects, Vols. 10 and 11: Education in the United States of America. London: Wyman & Sons.
Sayre, T. B. Tom Moore. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Scudder, Vida D. Introduction to the Study of English Literature. Globe School Book Co. $1.20.
Super, O. B. Thiers' La Campagne de Waterloo. Silver, Burdett & Co. 40 cents.
Supino, J. B. Fra Angelico. Florence: Alinari Bros.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
The Complete Works of Edgar Allan Poe. (Virginia Edition.) Edited by James A. Harrison. 17 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Villari, Luigi. Italian Life in Town and Country. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Wyatt, Lucy M. L. Constance Hamilton. Abbey Press. 50 cents.

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